

ADVANCED GRAMMAR,

FOR

INDIAN

HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS,

WITH

NUMEROUS EXERCISES

AND

UNIVERSITY EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

✕

Differences in structure between English and the Indian Vernaculars are frequently pointed out and Students are guarded against mistakes into which they are apt to fall Corresponding Sanskrit Roots are given under Derivations

LONDON

The Christian Literature Society for India.

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1900

P R E F A C E.

THE ADVANCED GRAMMAR, as indicated on the title page, is for High School and University Students. It is intended to supplement the NEW MANUAL OF GRAMMAR, the old edition of which has been widely used, for a number of years, in every Province of India.

The New Manual of Grammar contains a careful revision, with numerous additions, of the sections of the Manual of Grammar treating of Etymology and the Analysis of Sentences. On the other hand, the parts treating of Derivation, Prosody, and Figures of Speech, have been transferred to the Advanced Grammar, as they are not required for the Middle School Course.

In the Advanced Grammar much additional information is given regarding the structure and formation of the English Language, with some of the principal points of difference between it and the Indian Vernaculars. Corresponding Sanskrit Roots are given under Derivation. The Examination Questions, from the three Presidency Universities, will be found of much service.

For aid in its compilation, acknowledgment is specially due to the treatises of MORRIS, BAIN, ANGUS, SMITH and HALL, MEIKLEJOHN, McMORDIE, BASU, NESFIELD, ROWE and WEBB.

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Allahabad Christian College

ADVANCED ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

WE make known our thoughts chiefly by **Spoken and Written Language.**

Language comes from the Latin word *lingua*, meaning the *tongue*. *Spoken* language was before *written* language.

Making known our thoughts by gestures, smiling, crying, &c., is called **Natural Language**. It is the earliest of all.

Spoken Language is made up of *sounds*.

The sounds made in speaking are said to be *articulate*,¹ while those made by dogs, &c., are called *inarticulate*. *Articulate* means *jointed*. Articulate sounds join together. Man alone is able to speak.

Written Language is made up of letters, which stand for sounds.

Sounds, or letters, having a meaning, form **Words**.

Two or more words having a full meaning, form a **Sentence**.²

A **Language** is the speech peculiar to a *nation*; as, the English language, the Bengali, &c.

A **Dialect**³ is a form of language peculiar to a *district*. In different parts of the same country pronunciation sometimes differs, and some words are used which are not common elsewhere.

GRAMMAR explains the proper use of language.

Grammar comes from the Greek word *gramma*, meaning a *letter*.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches us to speak and write the English language correctly.

¹ From *artus*, a joint

² From *sentis*, to think.

³ *Dialektos*, manner of speech.

The three principal divisions of Grammar are ORTHOGRAPHY,¹ ETYMOLOGY,² and SYN'TAX.³

Orthography treats of *letters*; Etymology, of *words*; and Syntax, of *arranging words in sentences*.

Orthography teaches how to *write* or *spell* words correctly. Or'thoepy⁴ teaches how to *pronounce* words correctly. The former is addressed to the *eye*; the latter, to the *ear*.

Prosody,⁵ treating of *poetry*, is a fourth division of Grammar.

Punctuation,⁶ dividing sentences by points or marks, is sometimes regarded as a fifth division of grammar.

EXERCISES.

How do we chiefly make known our thoughts? From what word does *Language* come? What is the earliest form of *Language*? What does it use? Into what two classes are sounds divided? Why are they so called? Of what is *written language* made up? What are *words*? What is a *sentence*? What is a *Language*? What is a *Dialect*? How do a *Language* and *Dialect* differ? From what does the word *Grammar* come, and what is its use? What does *English Grammar* teach? What are the three principal divisions of Grammar? Of what do they treat? What does *Orthography* teach? What does *Orthoepy* teach? What is a fourth division of Grammar? Of what does it treat? What is sometimes regarded as a fifth division of Grammar? What is *Punctuation*?

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the forms and sounds of letters, and the right way of spelling words.

CAPITALS AND SMALL LETTERS.

A **Letter** is a mark which stands for a simple sound.

The letters of any language are called its **Alphabet**. The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

The word **Alphabet** comes from *Alpha, beta*, the first two Greek letters. It is like A, B, C.

The Egyptian picture writing is supposed to have been the earliest form of written language. The Phœnicians shortened it into letters. Other Alphabets were derived from the Phœnician. The Phœnician and Hebrew Alphabets had each 22 letters; Greek

¹ From *or'-thos*, right, and *graph'-o*, to write. ² *Et'-y-mos*, true, *ló'-gos*, account. ³ *Syn'-a*, together, *tax'-is*, joining. ⁴ *Orthos*, right, *epos*, word. ⁵ *Pro-so'-dē-a*, song. ⁶ *Punc-tum*, a point.

had 24 ; Latin, 25 ; Arabic has 28 letters ; Tamil, 31 ; Sanskrit, 47. The oldest English had 24 letters. Three letters went out of use, and others were added. J and I, V and U were formerly considered the initial¹ and medial² sounds of the same letters. The present English Alphabet is the same as the Latin, with the addition of W.

Letters have two forms—capitals and small letters.

The word *Capitals* comes from the Latin *caput*, meaning *head*. Small letters were first used in the seventh century, A.D.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

In addition to the above, the double letters *æ* and *œ* (= *ae* and *oe*) are sometimes found in words borrowed from Greek and Latin ; as, *ægis*, *sub-pœna*. They are pronounced like *ce*.

The above are called *Roman* characters. Others, named *Italics*, are sometimes used to point out emphatic or important words. In the Bible, however, they denote that there are no words answering to them in the original.

Words intended to be very emphatic are often printed in SMALL CAPITALS.

Words should begin with capitals in the following situations :—

1. The first word of every sentence.
2. The first word of every line of poetry.
3. The first word of a *direct* quotation.³
4. The names of the Supreme Being.
5. All proper names, whether nouns or adjectives.
6. The title of a person or of a book ; as, Her Majesty, Macaulay's *History of England*.
7. Common names personified, or spoken of as persons ; as, "O Death !"
8. Names of the days of the week and of the months of the year.
9. Any important word ; as, the "Reformation."
10. The words *I* and *O*.
11. Single letters standing for words ; as, B.A., M.A.

EXERCISES.

What is a *letter* ? What is an *Alphabet* ? From what does the word *Alphabet* come ? How many letters does the English

¹ *Initium*, beginning.

² *Medius*, middle.

³ A *quotation* is the repeating of something said or written by another. It is *direct* when the name of the author is mentioned ; as, Franklin says, "Help yourselves."

Alphabet contain? What is supposed to have been the earliest form of written language? What improvement did the Phenicians make? How many letters had the Phenician and Hebrew Alphabets? How many letters had the Greek and Latin? How many letters have the Arabic, Tamil, and Sanskrit? How many letters had the oldest English? What changes afterwards took place? What letters were formerly considered the same? How does the present English Alphabet differ from the Latin Alphabet? What two forms have letters? When were small letters first used? What double letters are there in some words taken from Greek or Latin? How are they pronounced? What two *characters* are used? What is the use of *Italics*? How are they employed in the Bible? Why are *small capitals* sometimes used? When should words begin with capitals?

Correct the errors in the use of Capital Letters in the following:—

it was at rome on the 15th of october, 1764, as i sat musing among the ruins of the capitol, while the bare-footed friars were Singing vespers in the temple of jupiter, that the idea of Writing the decline and fall of the city first started to my mind.

still pressing on, beyond tornea's lake,
and hecla flaming through a waste of snow,
and farthest greenland, to the pole itself.
where, failing gradual, life at length goes out,
the muse expands her solitary flight.
remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,
or by the Lazy scheld, or Wandering po;
or onward where the rude carinthian boor
against the houseless Stranger shuts the door;
or where campania's Plain forsaken lies,
a weary waste Expanding to the skies;
where'er i roam, whatever Realms to see,
my Heart untravell'd, fondly turns to thee.

VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

Letters are divided into VOWELS and CONSONANTS.

A Vowel¹ is a letter which can be sounded by itself.

A Consonant² is a letter which cannot be sounded without the help of a vowel.

The Vowels are, a, e, i, o, u, with w and y when they do not begin a syllable. The remaining letters, with w

¹ *Vocals*, a voice, akin to Sanskrit *vac*, to speak.

² *Con*, together, *so-no*, to sound.

and *y* when they begin a syllable, or before a vowel in the same syllable, are **Consonants**.

W and *y* are sometimes called *semi-vowels*, as they are used both as vowels and consonants.

Two vowels sounded together form a **Diphthong**.¹

Diphthong, pronounced *dip'-thong* or *dif'-thong*, means *two sounds*.

When both vowels are heard, it is called a **proper Diphthong**; as, *oy* in *boy*. When only one vowel is heard, it is called an **improper Diphthong**; as, *eo* in *people*. *I* in *high* is properly a diphthong.

Three vowels sounded together form a **Triphthong**;² as, *iew* in *view*, or *eau* in *beauty*.

Triphthong, pronounced *trif'-thong* or *trip'-thong*, means *three sounds*.

Vowel Sounds.

The vowels have different sounds.

A has four principal sounds, called the *long*, *short*, *open*, and *broad*; as in *mane*, *man*, *father*, *call*.

E has also four sounds; as in *me*, *met*, *there*, *her*. *E* at the end of a word is generally silent.

O has three principal sounds; as in *note*, *not*, *move*. The three original Aryan vowels were *a*, *i*, *u*; *o* was afterwards added.

U has three principal sounds; as in *tube*, *tub*, *bull*.

W takes its name from two *V*'s united. When it begins a syllable or before a vowel in the same syllable, it is a consonant; as in *wall*, *two*. It is often silent at the beginning of words when followed by *r*, as *write*, *wrong*. At the end of syllables it has generally no force, or forms part of a diphthong, as *now*, *vow*, in which case it has the sound of *u*.

Y at the beginning of syllables and followed by a vowel, is a consonant. In the middle and end of words it is a vowel, the same as *i*. It is sounded as *i* long when accented, as in *rely*; and as *i* short when unaccented, as in *glory*.

¹ *Di*, twice, *phthongos*, sound.

² *Treis*, three, *phthongos*, sound.

EXERCISES.

How are Letters divided? What is a *Vowel*? What is a *Consonant*? Name the Vowels. When are *w* and *y* Consonants? What are they sometimes called? What is a *Diphthong*? What is the meaning of Diphthong? How are Diphthongs divided? How do Proper and Improper Diphthongs differ? What is a *Triphthong*? Give the different Vowel sounds. What were the original Aryan vowels?

Point out when w and y are consonants in the following words:—

Where, year, hyssop, tow, sword, yes, was, away, dying, swallow, yesterday, awful, twenty, wherewith, play, coward, wait, syntax.

Name the Proper and Improper Diphthongs and Triphthongs in the following words:—

Grief, feud, buoy, review, beauty, jewel, thousand, soul, noun, beat, strait, rough, raw, Europe, tongue, swear, coffee, power, boat, noon, woe, adieu, colour, mouse, voice, eye, haul, employ.

Write out six words in which w and y are vowels, and six in which they are consonants.

Write out six words containing Proper Diphthongs, and six containing Improper Diphthongs.

Mention the principal sounds of the Vowels.

CONSONANTS.

Classification.

Consonants are divided into *liquids*, *mutes*, and *sibilants*. The Liquids,¹ l, m, n, r, are so called because they easily join with other consonants.

The Mutes,² or *Dumb Letters*, stop the voice. They are divided into three classes according to the part chiefly used in pronouncing them. The Labials, or *Lip Letters*, are p and f sharp, and b and v flat. In pronouncing the sharp or hard mutes, the voice is entirely stopped, while with the flat or soft mutes the stoppage is not complete. The Dentals,³ or *Teeth Letters*, are t sharp and d flat. The Gutturals,⁴ or *Throat Letters*, are k sharp and g (hard) flat.

The Sibilants,⁵ or *Hissing Letters*, are s sharp and z flat. The letter h is called the *Aspirate*,⁶ or *Breathing Letter*. The letter j is sometimes called a *Palatal*,⁷ one pronounced with the palate or roof of the mouth.

Letters which do not stop the voice entirely are called *Spirants*, from *spiro*, to breathe; as, f, th, &c.

¹ *Lī-quo*, to melt. ² *Mutus*, dumb. ³ *Dens*, tooth. ⁴ *Guttur*, the throat. ⁵ *Sib-ālo*, to hiss. ⁶ *As-pī-ro*, to breathe. ⁷ *Pal-atum*, the roof of the mouth.

The principal flat and sharp consonants are as follows :—

Flat	Sharp.
G (hard)	K
J	Ch (as in church)
D ²	T
B	P
Z (as in prize)	S (as in mouse)
Th (as in bathe)	Th (as in bath)
V	F.

When consonants are joined, a *sharp* consonant must be followed by a *sharp* consonant; and a *flat* consonant by a *flat* one. If they are unlike, one of them becomes like the other. If the first is *sharp*, the second, if *flat*, will become *sharp*; as, *weeped*, *wept*. This is the chief rule of SANDHI in English.

Of all alphabets the Sanskrit is the most complete and best arranged. Following its order, the English consonants would be classified as follows :—

Gutturals	k	g (hard)	ng
Palatals		ch (soft)	j
Cerebrals ¹		wanting	
Dentals		t	d
Labials	p	f	b v
Liquids	l	m	n r
Sibilants		s	z
Aspirate		h	

Cerebrals, which are wanting in English, are pronounced by bringing the tip of the tongue to the roof of the mouth.

EXERCISES.

How are consonants divided, and why are they so called? Name the *Liquids*. How are the *Mutes* subdivided? What are the *Labials*? Why are they so called? What difference is there in the pronunciation of *sharp* and *flat* mutes? What are the *Dentals*? Why are they so called? What are the *Gutturals*? Why are they so called? Name the *Sibilants*. What is the letter *h* called? What is *j* called? Why? Name the principal flat Consonants and the corresponding sharp ones. What is the principal rule of Sandhi in English? Divide the consonants according to the Sanskrit Alphabet. Which letters are wanting? How are they pronounced? What should they be rather called?

¹ From *cerebrum*, the brain. "Cerebrals" is an improper translation of "head letters." They should rather be called *linguals*, tongue letters.

CONSONANTS—continued.

Sounds.

B has its natural sound, as in *bell*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *debt*, *climb*.

C usually sounds like *s* before *e*, *i*, and *y* : and like *k* before *a*, *o*, and *u* ; as *cell*, *city*, *mercy*, *cargo*, *copy*, *cunning*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *scene*.

CH has a soft sound in *rich* ; a sound like *sh* in *inch* ; and a hard sound like *k* in *echo*.

D has its natural sound in *den* ; it sounds like *t* in *marked* ; and like *j* in *soldier*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *knowledge*.

F has its natural sound in *fate*. It is not found in most Indian languages. The sound is formed by applying the under lip to the upper teeth, and emitting the breath. In *of* it is pronounced like *v*.

G is generally hard before *a*, *o*, and *u* ; as in *gain*, *go*, *guard* ; it has a soft sound like *j* in *rage*, *rigid*, *clergy*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *sign*.

G H sounds like *g* hard in *ghee* ; like *f* in *tough* ; like *k* in *hough* (*hok*) ; and like *p* in *hiccough* (*hikup*). It is sometimes *silent*, as in *plough*.

H has its natural sound in *him*. It is *silent* in *heir*, *hour*, *honest*, *honour*, and their derivatives, and in *hostler* ; after *g* initial, as in *ghost* ; after *r*, as in *rhyme* ; and when preceded by a vowel in the same syllable, as in *ah*.

J is always pronounced like soft *g* except in the word *hallelujah*, in which it sounds like initial *y* (*ya*). Both *i* and *j* had originally the same sound.

K has its natural sound, as in *king*. It is *silent* before *n* in the same syllable ; as, *know*, *knee*.

L has its natural sound in *lame*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *calf*, *almond*, *walk*.

M has its natural sound in *man*.

N has its natural sound in *no*. It sounds like *ny* in *anger*. It is *silent* after *m* in the same syllable ; as *hymn*.

P has its natural sound in *pen*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *receipt*.

PH has the sound of *f* in some words of Greek origin ; as *phrase* ; and the sound of *v* in *Stephen*.

Q has the power of *k*, and is always followed by *u*, pronounced like *w*.

R has its natural sound, as in *ran*. *Re*, unaccented, is pronounced like unaccented *er*, as centre (cen-ter). *R* and *l* are sometimes interchanged.

S has a sharp hissing sound, as in *sit* ; a flat sound like *z*, as in *is*, *has*, *beds* ; the sound of *zh* as in *confusion* ; and the sound of *sh*, as in *sugar*, *sure*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *island*.

T has its natural sound, as in *ten*. *Ti* before a vowel and unaccented often has the sound of *sh*, as in *nation*, *partial*. It is sometimes *silent*, as in *often*, *castle*.

Th has a soft flat sound, as in *they*, *breathe* ; a hard sharp sound, as in *breath*. In old English *th* was represented by two characters.

V, as in *van*, never varies in sound. Some centuries ago *u* and *v* were the same letter.

X has a sharp sound, like *ks*, as in *exercise* ; a flat sound like *gs*, as in *example* ; and the sound of *z*, as in *Xenophon*.

Z has its natural sound, as in *zeal*, *dozen* ; and the sound of *zh*, as in *seizure*.

EXERCISES.

Question the Pupils on the sounds of the different consonants, and let them question one another.

Give four examples each of silent b, g, k, l, n, t.

DEFECTS IN THE ENGLISH ALPHABET.

In a perfect Alphabet every separate sound would be represented by a separate letter. No letter would have more than one sound. Tried by this standard, the English Alphabet is very defective. Some letters, as *c*, *g*, and *x*, are unnecessary ; *c* may be represented by *s* or *k* ; *g* by *kw*, and *x* by *ks*. The same letter often stands for different sounds, as the four sounds of *a*. The same sound is represented by different letters. The long sound of *a* is expressed

a B 2

in *eight* different ways; as in *fute, paid, say, great, neigh, prey, gaol, quays*. So with other vowel sounds.

Letters are sometimes *silent*, as in *know*. Silent letters are sometimes used to modify the sounds of other letters. Find, mute *e* lengthens the sound of the preceding vowel; as in *can, cane*. In some cases they show the origin of words; as *sign* from the Latin *signum*.

In English forty-three sounds have to be represented by twenty-three letters. The English Alphabet contains several sounds not found in the Indian languages; as *e* in *met*, *o* in *odil*; *th* in *that*. On the other hand, it wants several Indian sounds, as the cerebrals.

It has been proposed to spell words *phonetically*,¹ or according to the sound. The disadvantages are that the derivation of words would be concealed; words which are alike in sound, as *son* and *sun*, would be confounded; and books printed in the old style would be rendered useless. Pronunciation also changes.

The defective arrangement in the English Alphabet, compared with the Sanskrit, has been noticed. The Hebrew Alphabet contains some traces of classification. Omitting doubtful letters, it may be arranged as follows:—

		Labials.	Palatals.	Dentals.
Soft	a	b	g (c)	d
Continuous	e	v (f)	ch (h)	th (t)
Liquid	i	m	l	n
Hard	o	p	q	t

EXERCISES.

What are wanted in a perfect Alphabet? What are the defects of the English Alphabet? What are the uses of silent letters? How many sounds are there in the English language? How many different letters are there to represent them? How do the English and Indian languages differ with regard to sounds? What is meant by *Phonetic* spelling? What are its disadvantages?

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

A **Syllable**² is as much of a word as can be sounded at once.

In every syllable there must be at least one vowel. In a few cases the vowel is not sounded, as *o* in *season*, pronounced *seé-zn*. Every vowel except *w* can make a syllable.

¹ *Phoné*, a sound.

² *Syl-la-be*, a taking together.

A **Word** is an articulate sound, having some meaning.

A **Prim'itive**¹ Word is one in its simplest form ; as, *large*, *good*.

A word of this kind is sometimes called a **root**.

A **Deriv'ative**² Word is one that is formed from some simpler word ; as, *larger*, *goodness*.

A **Simple Word** is not made up of other words ; as, *pen*.

A **Compound Word** consists of two or more simple words ; as, *penknife*, *notwithstanding*.

A word of *one* syllable is called a **Mon'osyllable** ;³ of *two* syllables, a **Dissyllable** ; of *three*, a **Trisyllable** ; of more than three, a **Polysyllable**.⁴

In writing, it is often necessary to divide words. Observe the following rules :—

1. Divide according to pronunciation ; as, *ru-in*.
2. Separate compound words into the simple words of which they are composed ; as, *pen-man*.
3. Keep the root whole in derivative words ; separate grammatical prefixes⁵ and endings ; as, *re-form-er*.
4. Never divide words of one syllable, or letters of the same syllable.

Compound words should not be divided except where it is necessary at the end of a line ; thus, *likewise* should not be written *like wise*.

ACCENT AND EMPHASIS.

Accent⁶ is the stress of the voice upon a certain *syllable* of a word.

In *dif'fer* the accent is on the first syllable ; in *re-tain'*, on the second ; in *un-der-stand'*, on the third. It is denoted by the sign (').

The tendency of modern English is to throw the accent near the *beginning* of words. *Inter'esting* was formerly pronounced *interest'ing*.

Many words are differently accented according as they are used as nouns or verbs.

This is to make up, in some measure, for the want of different endings :—

¹ *Pr'i-mus*, first. ² *De*, from, *ri-vus*, a river ; drawn from. ³ *Mo'-nos*, alone, *syll'-la-be*, a syllable. ⁴ *Pol'-lys*, many. ⁵ *Pre*, before, fix. ⁶ *Ac-cent-us*, a tone or note, from *ac*, to, *cantus*, singing.

Nouns.

con'duct
con'tract
ex'ile
in'-crease
reb'-el
toi'-ment

Verbs.

conduct'
con'tract'
exile'
increase'
re-bel'
tor-ment'

Sometimes the meaning of a word is entirely altered by a change of accent:—

An'gust (*the month*)
com'pact (*agreement*)
des'ert (*wilderness*)
in'cense (*spices burnt*)
inval'id (*not strong*)
min'ute (60 seconds)

au-gust' (*grand*)
compact' (*close*)
desert' (*merit*)
incense' (*make angry*)
invalid' (*sickly person*)
minute' (*small*)

Em'phasis¹ is the stress of the voice upon an important word.

Emphasis is to sentences what *accent* is to syllables. A sentence may have different meanings according to the emphasis. *Will you go to Calcutta to-day?* (No, but my brother will.) *Will you go to Calcutta to-day?* (No; I go to Serampore.) *Will you go to Calcutta to-day?* (No; I go to-morrow.)

EXERCISES.

What is a *syllable*? What must there be in every syllable? What is a *word*? What is a *Primitive* word? What a *Derivative*? How do *simple* and *compound* words differ? How are words named according to the number of their syllables? What are the rules for the division of words in writing? What is *Accent*? What is *Emphasis*? How are many words accented differently? What effect has accent sometimes upon the meaning of a word?

Divide the following words into syllables, and point out the accented syllable:—

Ungrateful, philosopher, remarkable, decree, revolution, accession, co-operate, loyal, request, inhabitant, comparative, following, accumulate, construction, purpose, memory, inheritance, exercise, solitude, anniversary, comprehend, tremendous, perpendicular, deity, idea, telegraph.

Give six examples of words which change their meaning according to the accent.

¹ Em'-fu-sis, from em'-pha-sis, a setting forth.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

The spelling of the English language is very difficult, for there are exceptions to all general rules. Still, attention to the following directions will be of great assistance :—

I. Words ending in *e* generally drop the *e* when a syllable beginning with a vowel is added, but retain it before a suffix¹ beginning with a consonant; as, *make*, *making*; *pure*, *pureness*.

Exceptions.

1. Final *e*, preceded by *c* or *g* soft, is retained before *able*, and sometimes before *ing* and *ous*; as, *peace*, *peaceable*; *change*, *changeable*; *shoe*, *shoeing*; *courage*, *courageous*.

2. Words ending in double *e* do not drop the *e*; as, *see*, *seeing*; *agree*, *agreeable*.

3. Final *e* is changed into *i* before *fy* and *ty*, and into *y* before *ing*; as, *pure*, *purify*; *active*, *activity*; *lie*, *lying*.

4. Final *e* is dropped in a few words when a syllable is added beginning with a consonant; as, *awe*, *awful*; *true*, *truly*; *judge*, *judgment*.

II. Words ending in *y*, preceded by a *consonant*, generally change *y* into *i* before a suffix; as, *cry*, *cried*; *happy*, *happiness*.

Exceptions: *Y* is retained before *ing*, *ish*, and *'s*, or of part of a diphthong; as, *flying*, *babyish*, *buyer*, *lady's*. This rule does not apply to *compound* words; as, *ladyship*.

III. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a *vowel*, generally retain *y* before a suffix; as, *boy*, *boyish*.

Words ending in *ie* drop the *e* before *ing*, and change *i* into *y* to prevent the doubling of *i*; as, *die*, *dying*.

IV. Words of one syllable, and words accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *beg*, *beggar*; *prefer*, *preferred*.

Words ending in *l*, though not accented on the last syllable,

¹ A syllable added to a word; from *sub*, under, after, *figo*, to fix. Called also *affix* and *postfix*.

follow the same rule ; as, quarrel, *quarrelling*. Also, worshipping, woollen.

V. *Generally*, words *not* accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, do *not* double their final letter before a suffix beginning with a vowel ; as, offer, *offering* ; benefit, *benefitting*.

VI. Final *ll* generally drops one *l* in composition ; as, almost, skilful.

Irreceptions : Illness, befall, smallness, farewell, &c.

VII. If a prefix end and a root begin with the same letter, the double letter must be preserved ; as, misshapen, mis-spelt.

EXERCISES.

Question on the Rules given, and require additional examples. Give dictation exercises on the different classes of words.

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the arrangement of words into classes, their derivation, and the changes they undergo.

Etymology means an account of the *true origin of words*.

Derivation comes from *de*, down from, and *rivus*, a river. It means a drawing off, as water from a river.

Derivation traces words to their roots, and shows how they are formed.

The changes in the forms of words are called **Inflections**.¹

Inflection, or *inflexion*, comes from a word meaning to *bend in*. Thus, *man* may be changed to *men* ; *write*, to *wrote*. It denotes some change in the meaning of a word, or in its relation to some other word in the sentence.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The different classes into which words are divided are called **Parts of Speech**.

*Parsing*² is telling the "parts of speech" of words, and their relation to other words in the sentence.

There are **eight** parts of speech, namely, the **Noun**, the

¹ *In*, in, *flecto*, *flectum*, to bend.

² *Pars*, part.

Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

The Article¹ is sometimes reckoned as a distinct part of speech, but it is an Adjective.

The articles are *a* or *an* and *the*. The word *article* means *little joint*. Articles are always joined to nouns.

A NOUN² is the name of a person, place, or thing; as, *boy*, *Madras*, *book*, *sweetness*, *stone*.

An ADJECTIVE³ is a word which qualifies a Noun; as a *good* man; *four* boys.

Adjective means *thrown to*. It is a word *put to* or used with a Noun to tell of what kind it is.

A PRONOUN⁴ is a word used in place of a Noun; as, If Rama is here, tell *him* to come.

A VERB⁵ is a word which declares or tells something; as, I *am*; the man *works*.

Verb means *word*. There cannot be a sentence without a verb.

An ADVERB⁶ is a word which qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, speak *correctly*; a *very* large mango; you write *too* quickly.

A PREPOSITION⁷ is a word placed before a Noun or a Pronoun to show how it stands to some other thing; as, A house *on* a hill.

A CONJUNCTION⁸ joins words or sentences; as, Rice and curry; John went home, *but* James remained.

An INTERJECTION⁹ is a word which expresses some sudden feeling; as, *Ah!* *Alas!*

Indian Grammarians divide words into three classes—Nouns, Verbs, and Indeclinables.¹⁰ Under Nouns are included Adjectives and Pronouns. The Indeclinables include Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections, which do not admit of changes.

EXERCISES.

Of what does *Etymology* treat? What is the meaning of the word *Etymology*? What does *Derivation* do? What are the

¹ *Articulus*, a little joint. ² *Nomen*, name. ³ *Ad*, to, *jacio*, to throw. ⁴ *Pro*, for. ⁵ *Verbun*, word. ⁶ *Ad*, to. ⁷ *Pra*, before, *pos-itus*, to place. ⁸ *Con*, together, *junctus*, joined. ⁹ *Inter*, between, *jacio*, to throw. ¹⁰ *In* not, *de*, down, away from, *clino*, to bend.

changes in the forms of words called? What is *Parsing*? Name the different parts of speech and explain their meaning. Into what three classes do Indian Grammarians divide words?

Name the parts of speech in the following sentences :—

Rama gave me a mango. His mother died last year. I went away, and he came back. King George became blind in his old age. He did not go himself, nor would he allow me to go. Govind and Krishna went to school when they were six years old. Alas! he was drowned when bathing in the tank. I may see Rama this evening; I will give him your message if I do.

Give six examples of each of the Parts of Speech.

THE NOUN.

A NOUN is the name of a person, place, or thing.

The word "thing" is taken in its widest sense. It includes whatever we can *think of*, whether it be an object that we can see, or something which is perceived *only by the mind*; as, *truth, joy, cause, movement*.

The *thing itself* is not a Noun—only its *name*.

Nouns are divided into FIVE CLASSES.

I. A Proper¹ Noun is the name of only one person or thing; as, John, Madras, India, Monday, the Ramayana.

The word *proper* means *own*. A proper name is *one's own name*.

II. A Common Noun is a name that can be given to all things of the same kind; as, dog, table.

A Common Noun distinguishes one class from another class; as, *beasts from birds*. A Proper Noun distinguishes one individual from another individual; as, *Rama from Govind, Bombay from Calcutta*.

Proper Nouns are used as *Common* when they denote a class or one of the individuals of a class; as, *the Cæsars, the Howards, the Solomon* of his age. Such words should be parsed as Proper Nouns used as Common Nouns. They then admit of the plural form.

A *Common Noun* becomes *Proper* when it points out a particular person or thing. It is then preceded by an adjective, generally the definite article *the*; as, *the Earth, the Queen*.

When God and Lord denote the Supreme Being, they are

¹ *Proprius*, one's own.

Proper Nouns ; but when applied to the gods of the nations and temporal lords, they are Common.

III. A Collective¹ Noun denotes a number of persons or things taken as *one* ; as, *army, flock, crowd*.

Different names are often given to collections of different objects. We speak of a *crowd* of persons, a *herd* of cattle feeding, a *flock* of sheep, a *swarm* of flies, a *bunch* of grapes, a *forest* of trees, a *group* of islands, &c.

IV. Material² Nouns denote the names of substances ; as, *gold, iron, stone, wood*.

Material comes from a word meaning *matter* ; that of which anything is made.

A word may be a Material or a Common Noun, according to the sense ; as, *Rice* is eaten ; *Rice* is a plant. In the first sentence "*rice*" is a Material Noun ; in the second, a Common Noun.

Sometimes there is one word for a Common Noun and another for the corresponding Material Noun ; as, *Sheep, Mutton* ; *Tree, Timber*.

V. An Abstract³ Noun is the name of a quality or action ; as, *whiteness, love, truth, reading*.

The word *abstract* means *drawn off*. A quality is always found in a substance ; as *redness* in a rose. But we may *think* of it as apart from its substance. The object itself, as opposed to this, is called a *Concrete*⁴ Noun ; as, *rose, &c*.

Abstract Nouns may denote

(a) A quality ; as, *honesty, hardness*.

(b) A state ; as, *health, sleep*.

(c) A feeling or an action ; as, *pain, running*.

(d) Names of arts and sciences ; as, *painting, astronomy*.

(e) Time or space ; as, *youth, depth*.

Abstract Nouns are sometimes used as Collective Nouns. Thus we may say "the nobility" instead of "the nobles."

Abstract Nouns are used as Common when they denote the person possessing the quality or the thing to which the action, &c., refers. "Beauty is admired" (abstract) ; "She is a beauty" (common).

Abstract Nouns are chiefly formed from :—

1. *Adjectives* ; as, *wise, wisdom* ; *idle, idleness*.

2. *Nouns* ; as, *friend, friendship* ; *thief, theft*.

3. *Verbs* ; as, *see, sight* ; *think, thought*.

¹ *Con*, col, together, *lego*, lectum, to gather. ² *Materia*, matter. ³ *Abs*, from, tractum, to draw. ⁴ *Con*, together, cretum, to grow.

Nouns may also be classified as *Proper* or *Common*, *Concrete* or *Abstract*.

EXERCISES.

When a Noun is said to be the name of a person's place, or thing, how is the word "thing" to be understood? Is the thing *itself* a Noun? Name the five classes into which Nouns are divided, and explain their meaning. How do *Proper* and *Common* Nouns differ? When are *Proper* Nouns used as *Common*, and *Common* Nouns used as *Proper*? What names are given to different collections of objects? Give an example of a *Material* Noun used as *Common*. How do *Abstract* and *Concrete* Nouns differ? What may *Abstract* Nouns denote? How are *Abstract* Nouns sometimes used? When are *Abstract* Nouns used as *Common*? How are *Abstract* Nouns chiefly formed? Into what two classes may Nouns be divided?

Point out the Nouns in the following sentences, mentioning to which classes they belong:—

You are now full of care and anxiety. Clouds of smoke issued from the furnace. Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo. The king ordered the cavalry to charge. If Cæsar had conquered Britain, he would have obtained a triumph. The Bacons were related to the Cecils. The English are not a military people. Words are the daughters of earth, and deeds are the sons of heaven. That man is little to be pitied whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona. Kalidas was the Homer of India. The army is small, but the fleet is very powerful. Salt and water are both necessary to life. Cork is from the bark of the cork tree. Neither Rama nor his brother was at school this morning.

Write out six examples of each of the five classes of Nouns.

INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS.

Nouns have **Gender**, **Number**, and **Case**.

GENDER.

Gender is that form of the Noun which shows whether what is spoken of is *male*, *female*, or *neither*.

There are two sexes—the *male* sex and the *female* sex.

The names of males are of the *Masculine Gender*; the names of females are of the *Feminine Gender*. The names

of things without life are *Neuter*; that is, neither Masculine nor Feminine.

The word *Gender* means *kind* or *class*. It belongs only to words. A *man* is of the male sex; the word *man* is of the Masculine Gender. *Masculine* comes from a word meaning *male*; *Feminine*, from a word meaning *woman*; *Neuter* means *not either*.

In the oldest English, Nouns ending in *-dom*, as *freedom*, were masculine; nouns ending in *-ness*, as *goodness*, were feminine; some ending in *-en*, as *chicken*, were neuter. *Star*, *sea*, *tear*, &c., were masculine; *tongue*, *earth*, *week*, &c., were feminine; *wife* and *child* were neuter. In the fourteenth century, the present classification became general.

So far as Gender is concerned, the English language is now very simple. Some Indian languages, as Hindi and Urdu, have only two Genders, Masculine and Feminine; others, as Marathi and Gujarati, have three Genders; but the names of some inanimate objects are Masculine, while others are Feminine. In the languages of Southern India, everything destitute of reason is considered Neuter.

Words applied to both sexes are said to be of the *Common* or *Either Gender*; as, *parent*, *child*, *friend*, *servant*.

The Genders may be summed up as two properly so called, Masculine, Feminine; and two others, Neither, Either.

Collective Nouns, though denoting living beings, are Neuter; as, *crowd*, *multitude*.

Collective Nouns denote *groups*, and groups, as such, have no life. All Material and Abstract Nouns are also Neuter.

Young children and the lower animals are usually spoken of as Neuter.

Things without life are sometimes spoken of as if they were persons; as, "O gentle Sleep!" They are then said to be *personified*. Such nouns are regarded as Masculine or Feminine.

Things remarkable for strength, courage, greatness, &c., are regarded as males; as, the Sun, Death, War, Time, &c.

Things giving the idea of beauty, fertility, gentleness, &c., are regarded as females; the Moon, the Earth, Hope, Virtue, &c. A sailor calls his ship "she."

Nouns, thus personified, are commenced with capital letters.

EXERCISES.

What Inflections have Nouns? What is Gender? Give the names of the three Genders, and explain their meaning. When are words said to be of the *Common Gender*? What Nouns, though denoting living beings, are Neuter? When are things said to

be *personified*? What are the *Genders* of *personified Nouns*? What *personified Nouns* are considered *Masculine*, and what *Feminine*?

Write in four columns six Masculine Nouns, six Feminine Nouns, six Neuter Nouns, and six of the Common Gender.

Give six examples of Personified Nouns.

Gender—continued.

There are three ways of distinguishing Gender:—

I. By a different Word; as,

Bachelor maid,	Horse, stallion ² mare
... .. spinster ¹	Husband wife
Boar sow	King queen
Boy girl	Lord lady
Brother sister	Man woman ³
Buck doe	Milter (fish) spawner
Bull cow	Monk nun
Bullock, ox, or	Nephew niece
... .. steer heifer	Papa' mamma'
Cock hen	Ram, wether ⁴ ewe
Colt filly	Sir, or sire... .. madam,
Dog bitch dame ⁵
Drake... .. duck	Sire (father of
Earl countess	colt) dam (mother
Father mother	of colt)
Friar sister	Sloven slut
Gander goose	Son daughter
Gentleman... .. lady	Stag hind
Hart roe	Uncle aunt
	Wizard witch

II. By a different Ending.

1. By adding *ess*.

Abbot, abbeſs	Ambaſſador, ambaſſadreſs
Actor, actreſs	Arbiter, arbitreſs
Adulterer, adultereſs	Author, authoreſs, or author

¹ *Spinster* means a female ſpinner. In law it denotes an unmarried woman. In Old Engliſh *ſter* was much uſed as a feminine ſuffix or ending.

² *Horse* is uſed for both genders. *Stallion* is uſed only for the male not caſtrated.

³ *Woman* is a compound of *wife* and *man*.

⁴ *Wether* means a caſtrated ſheep.

⁵ *Dame* may be uſed for a noble lady, for the miſtreſs of a family or of a ſchool for young children.

Baron, bar'ones	Marquis, marchioness
Benefactor, benefactress	Master, mistress
Ca'terer, cateress	Mayor, mayoress
Chanter, chantiess	Murderer, murderess
Conductor, conductress	Negro, negress
Count, count'ess	Patron, patroness
Dauphin (daw'fin), dauphiness	Peer, peeress
Dea'con, dea'coness	Poet, poetess, or poet
Duke, duchess	Priest, priestess
Elector, electress	Prince, princess
Emperor, empress	Prior, prioress
Enchanter, enchantress	Prophet, prophetess
Giant, giantess	Protector, protectress
God, goddess	Shepherd, shepherdess
Governor, governess	Songster, songstress
Heir, heiress	Sorcerer, sorceress
Host, hostess	Tiger, tigress
Hunter, huntress	Traitor, traitress
Jew, Jewess	Tutor, tutoress
Lad, lass	Vi'scount, viscountess
Lion, lioness	Votary, votaress

In Old English the masculine ending was *a*, and the feminine *e*. Many masculines in *-er* had a corresponding feminine in *-ster*; as, spinner, *spinsters*. The Normans, who came over to England in 1066 A.D., introduced the French termination *-esse* from the Latin *-issa*. It is not found in the language before the twelfth century. In the fourteenth century it took the place of the older *-ster* as a feminine ending. After a time *-ster* merely marked the agent; as in *songster*. To denote the feminine *-ess* was added; as in *songstress*.

Governess now means a tutoress or instructress.

Songster is usually applied to birds. *Singer* is now used both for men and women.

The present tendency is to use the masculine form as common; as in the case of *author*, *poet*, &c.

2. By other endings.

Administrator	administratrix	Joseph	Josephine
Director	directrix, or directress	Paul	Pauline
Exec'utor	executrix	Landgrave	landgravine
Testa'tor	testatrix	Margrave	margravine
Widower	widow	Alexander	Alexandrine
Beau (bo)	belle (bel)	Czar	czarina
Fox	vixen	Sultan	sulta'na
Hero	heroine	Signor	signora
		Don	donna

Trix is a Latin ending, and is found only in words that have come directly from the Latin.

Ine, in *heroïne*, is a Greek ending; in *landgravine* and *margrave* it is German.

A is an Italian or Spanish ending. *Don* is the Spanish for a gentleman. *Infanta* means *the child*, the heiress to the crown of Spain. *Signor* (sen'-yur) is the Italian word of address, equal to sir. *Signora* (sên-yo'-ra) is applied to a lady.

Vicen is the only example of the Old English feminine suffix in -en. The word now means an ill-tempered woman.

III. By placing a word before or after.

1. By placing a word before.

Bull-calf	cow-calf	Male-child	female-child
Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	Male-servant	female-servant
He-ass (jack-ass)	she-ass	Man-servant	maid-servant
He-goat	she-goat	Man-kind	woman-kind

2. By placing a word after.

Bridegroom	bride	Milk-man	milk-maid
Foster-father	foster-mother	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Gentle-man	gentle-woman	Step-father	step-mother
Grand-father	grand-mother	Step-son	step-daughter
Land-lord	land-lady	Washer-man	Washer-woman

Widower and *bridegroom* are formed from the feminine. The old masculine was *widurwa*, and the feminine *widurwe*. *Groom* denotes *man*.

Some masculine nouns are used for both sexes; as, *horse*, *dog*, *actor*, *author*.

Some feminine nouns are used for both sexes; as, *duck*, *goose*.

Some nouns have only the feminine gender; as, *laundress*, *midwife*, *shrew*.

EXERCISES.

Name the ways of distinguishing Gender. How was the termination -*ess* introduced? Instead of different terminations, what is the present tendency? Explain the origin of the suffixes *trix*, *ine*, *a*, and *en*. From what are *widower* and *bridegroom* formed? What Masculine Nouns are used for both sexes? What Feminine Nouns are used for both sexes? Mention some Nouns used only in the Feminine.

Give the Gender of the following Nouns:—Bird, ram, tea, stranger, rice, honesty, crowd, prince, heroine, Indians, tiger,

enemy, witch, butter, Rama, uncle, poet, fleet, debtor, chief, moon, ant, bee, spouse, charity, army, gold.

*Give the Feminine Nouns corresponding to the following Masculine Nouns :—*Negro, gander, ram, lad, stag, earl, administrator, monk, hart, buck, wizard, sire, stallion, cocksparrow, landlord, stepson, bridegroom, peacock, boar, colt, friar.

*Give the Masculine Nouns corresponding to the following Feminine Nouns :—*Cow, sultana, lass, testatrix, widow, donna, dam, negress, witch, aunt, czarina, mistress, marchioness, infanta, doe, lass, duchess, margravine, Josephine, belle, vixen, Pauline, signora, she-goat.

Give five examples of each of the three ways of distinguishing Gender.

Let the pupils question each other on the Gender of Nouns.

NUMBER.

NUMBER shows whether one is meant, or more than one. When a Noun denotes *one* thing, it is said to be of the **Singular Number**. When a Noun denotes *more than one*, it is said to be of the **Plural Number**.

The difference in the Numbers is usually shown by a change in the form of the word.

In Sanskrit, Arabic, Greek, and some other languages, there is a Number called the **Dual** (from *du'-o*, two), which is used when *two* are spoken of.

GENERAL RULE.—The **Plural** is generally formed by adding **s** to the **Singular**; as, pen, pens; boy, boys.

In the Oldest English there were several plural endings; as, *-as*, *-an*, *-a*, *-u*. The most common was *-an*. In the thirteenth century they were reduced to *-es*, *-en*. Lastly, the terminations *-es* or *-s* became the ordinary sign of the Plural; as, *smithas*, *smithes*, *smiths*.

SPECIAL RULES.—1. Nouns ending in **s**, **sh**, **ch** soft, **x** or **z**, form the Plural by adding **es**; as, loss, losses; bush, bushes; watch, watches; box, boxes; topaz, topazes.

The vowel **e** is added to such words, because they could not otherwise be properly pronounced.

When **ch** has the sound of *k*, **s** only is added; as monarch, monarchs.

2. Most Nouns in **o** add **es** to the Plural; as, buffalo, buffaloes; echo, echoes; hero, heroes; mango, mangoes; negro, negroes; potato, potatoes.

A few Nouns in less common use ending in *o*, with all words ending in *oo* and *io*, add *s* only; as, *canto*, *cantos*; *grotto*, *grottos*; *quarto*, *quartos*; *bamboo*, *bamboos*; *folio*, *folios*; *nuncio*, *nuncios*.

3. *Y* after a consonant is changed into *ies*; but not after a vowel; as *city*, *cities*; *day*, *days*; *journey*, *journeys*.

Many such words formerly ended in *ie*, as *ladie*, *clitie*, so that the Plural followed the General Rule of adding *s*.

Nouns ending in *quy* take *ies*; as, *obsequy*, *obsequies*.

Proper names in *y* do not usually change the *y*; as, *Henry*, *Henrys*; *Mary*, *Marys*. But *Henries* and *Maries* are also used. Grammarians differ on this point.

4. Most Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the Plural; as, *calf*, *calves*; *half*, *halves*; *life*, *lives*; *wolf*, *wolves*.

The words *life*, *wife*, were once written without the final *e*, and the plural *es* made a distinct syllable.

But Nouns in *ief*, *oof*, *ff*, *rf*, usually take *s* only; as, *chief*, *chiefs*; *grief*, *griefs*; *hoof*, *hoofs*; *roof*, *roofs*; *serf*, *serfs*.

Exceptions: *thief* makes *thieves*; *five*, *fives*; *strife*, *strifes*. *Staff* has often *staves*, but its compounds follow the general rule; as, *flagstaffs*. *Scarf* has *scarfs* and *scarves*; *wharf* has *wharfs* and *wharves*.

EXERCISES.

What does *Number* show? Give the meanings of the two Numbers? How is the difference in Number generally shown? How is the Plural generally formed? What Nouns add *es*? Why? How do most Nouns ending in *o* form the Plural? What are the exceptions? How do Nouns ending in *y* form the Plural? How do Nouns in *f* or *fe* form the Plural? What are the exceptions?

Form the Plural of the following Nouns and give the Rule for each:—*Potato*, *church*, *loaf*, *enemy*, *roof*, *baby*, *fox*, *negro*, *army*, *valley*, *cargo*, *tobacco*, *folio*, *knife*, *staff*, *canto*, *match*, *bag*, *stomach*, *bamboo*, *journey*, *life*, *obsequy*, *halo*, *gulf*, *Mary*, *soliloquy*.

Mention six Nouns that form the Plural by adding *es*. Mention six Nouns in which *y* is unchanged in the Plural, and six in which it is changed.

Name six Nouns that change *f* into *v* in the Plural, and six which do not change *f* into *v*.

Number—continued.

5. Some Nouns form their Plural by a vowel change ; as, *man*, *men* ; *woman*, *women* ; *foot*, *feet* ; *goose*, *geese* ; *tooth*, *teeth* ; *louse*, *lice* ; *mouse*, *mice*.

Coachman has coachmen ; Dutchman, Dutchmen ; Englishman, Englishmen ; but German has Germans ; Norman, Normans. Brahman has Brahmans, and Mussalman, Mussalmans ; but in these cases the terminations are not the English word *man*.

6. A few Nouns form their Plural in *en* ; as, *ox*, *oxen* ; *child*, *children* ; *brother*, *brethren*.

The two foregoing cases are old Plurals. In the oldest English, Plurals in *en* were very common. After the Norman Conquest, the letter *s* gradually became, as in French, the common Plural.

Children is a double Plural. The Plural *childer* was used. It was forgotten that this was a proper Plural, and *en* was added. *Brethren* is also a double Plural. *En* was added to the old Plural *brother*. *Kine* is likewise a double Plural of *cow*. The oldest Plural was *cy*. Then *ne* was added. The Plural *cows* is now generally used.

7. Some Nouns have the same form in both Numbers.

They include the names of animals ; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *salmon*. Nouns of Number ; as, *pair*, *brace*, *couple*, *dozen*, *score*. Nouns of weight and money ; as, *pound*, *stone*, *hundredweight*, *pice* ; and some others ; as, *species*, *series*, *apparatus*, &c.

Some Nouns which commonly take the Plural retain the Singular when they express some definite number or quantity ; as *six fathom*, *a fortnight*, *a ten-rupee note*, *five yoke of oxen*, *twenty head of cattle*. In expressions like *10,000 foot*, the noun *soldiers* is understood.

8. Some Nouns have different meanings in different Numbers :—

Singular.
Good, welfare.
Iron, the metal.
Force, strength.
Air, the atmosphere.
Spectacle, sight.
Physic, medicine.
Compass, range.
Sand, material.

Plural.
Goods, property.
Irons, fetters made of iron.
Forces, army.
Airs, behaviour.
Spectacles, glasses for the eyes.
Physics, natural science.
Compasses, an instrument.
Sands, sea shore.

(1.) Some Nouns have *two* meanings in the Singular, and only *one* in the Plural.

Singular.

Abuse, 1. *wrong use* ; 2. *reproach*.
 People, 1. *nation* ; 2. *persons*.
 Light, 1. *of a lamp* ; 2. *a lamp*.
 Wood, 1. *material* ; 2. *forest*.

Plural.

Abuses, *wrong uses*.
 Peoples, *nations*.
 Lights, *lamps*.
 Woods, *forests*.

(2.) Some Nouns have *two* meanings in the Plural, and *one* in the Singular.

Singular.

Custom, *habit*.

Effect, *result*.

Manner, *method*.

Number, *quantity*.

Part, *division*.

Plural.

Customs, 1. *habits* ; 2. *Revenue duties*.

Effects, 1. *results* ; 2. *property*.

Manners, *methods, behaviour*.

Numbers, 1. *quantities* ; 2. *verses*.

Parts, 1. *divisions* ; 2. *abilities*.

9. Some Nouns have two Plurals with different meanings :—

Beef, *beefs* (kinds of beef), *beeves* (oxen) ; Brother, *brothers* (sons of the same father), *brethren* (of the same society) ; cloth, *cloths* (kinds of cloth), *clothes* (dress) ; die, *dies* (stamps for coining), *dice* (for play) ; fish, *fish* (kind), *fishes* (number) ; genius, *geniuses* (very clever persons), *genii* (spirits) ; index, *indexes* (to a book), *indices* (signs in algebra) ; pea, *peas* (separate seeds), *pease* (collection) ; penny, *pennies* (separate coins), *pence* (collective) ; shot, *shot* (the number of balls), *shots* (the number of times fired).

10. Proper, Material, and Abstract Nouns have no Plurals except when they are used as Common Nouns.

Proper Nouns take a Plural when they apply to several persons ; as, the *Cæsars*. Material Nouns have Plurals when different *sorts* are meant ; as, wines, oils. Abstract Nouns have Plurals when they denote different acts of the quality named ; as, He has many virtues. In such cases the Nouns are used as common.

Mountain chains and *groups of islands* are used in the Plural ; as *the Himalayas* ; *the Andamans*.

Furniture, information, and some other words are not used in the Plural. This applies to *abuse*, when used in the sense of bad language.

EXERCISES.

What are other Plural forms besides *-s* and *-es* ? Give examples of each. Mention some double Plurals. Mention six Nouns which

make no change for the Plural? When do Nouns which commonly take the Plural retain the Singular? Give six examples of Nouns which have different meanings in different Numbers. Give three examples of Nouns which have two meanings in the Singular and one in the Plural. Give the meanings of the Singular and Plural of *custom*, *effect*, *number*. Give the differences of meaning between *brothers*, *brethren*—*dies*, *dice*—*indexes*, *indices*—*peas*, *pease*—*shot*, *shots*. What Nouns have no Plurals? When do Proper, Material, and Common Nouns take Plurals? Give examples of each. What is the meaning of *wines*, *oils*, *virtues*, *vices*?

Number—continued.

11. Some Nouns have no Singular form.

These are generally the names of things of more parts than one. Such are :—

- (1.) Instruments or tools ; as, *bellows*, *scissors*, *pincers*, *spectacles*.
- (2.) Articles of dress ; as, *trousers*, *drawers*, *breeches*.
- (3.) Names of diseases ; as, *measles*, *numms*, *smallpox*.
- (4.) Miscellaneous ; as, *annals*, *billiards*, *Commons* (*House of*), *corps*, *credentials*, *drugs*, *nuptials*, *proceeds* (of a sale), *thanks*, *tidings*, *virtuals*, *vitals*.

A few of these are sometimes used as Singular ; as, *Smallpox* is a dangerous disease.

12. Some Nouns, Plural in form, are generally treated as Singular.

Such are the names of certain sciences derived from the Greek ; as, *ethics*, *hydrostatics*, *mathematics*, *mechanics*, *optics*, *physics*, *politics*. *News* is singular.

13. Some Nouns, Plural in form, are used in both Numbers according to the sense ; as, *series*, *species*. *Means*, *pains*, *alms* and *riches*, properly Singular, are now generally Plural.

Riches comes from the French *richesse*.

14. The Plural of Compound Nouns is generally formed by inflecting the principal Noun ; as, *maid-servants*, *sons-in-law*, *major-generals*.

When the compound consists of two Nouns, the sign of the Plural is usually added to the second ; as, *book-cases*, *ink-stands*, *watch-makers*.

When an Adjective qualifies a preceding Noun, the Plural sign is usually added to the Noun ; as, *courts-martial*, *heirs-apparent*, *knights-errant*, *States-general*.

The different sittings of a court-martial are called *Court-martials*.

When the words are connected by a preposition, the Plural sign is added to the first used ; as, *commanders-in-chief*, *heirs-at-law*, *men-of-war*.

When two titles are united, the second now usually takes the Plural ; as, *major-generals*, *surgeon-majors*.

Some compound Nouns, following the French idiom, have both words inflected ; as, *men-servants* ; *knights-templars* ; *lords-justices*, *lords-lieutenants*.

We may say either the *Miss Browns* or the *Misses Brown*. In addressing letters the second form is used.

15. The Plural of letters and arithmetical figures is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and *s* ; as, *B.A.'s* ; *5's*.

16. Many Nouns taken from other languages keep their own Plurals.

(1.) Nouns ending in *is* change the *is* into *es* ; as, *axis*, *axes* ; *basis*, *bases* ; *crisis*, *crises*.

(2.) Nouns ending in *um* or *on* change *um* and *on* into *a* in the plural ; as, *datum*, *data* ; *phenomenon*, *phenomena*.

(3.) Most Nouns in *us* change *us* into *i* ; as, *focus*, *foci*. But *genus* has *genera*.

(4.) Nouns ending in *ex* or *ix* change them into *ices* ; as, *apex*, *apices* ; *appendix*, *appendices*, and *appendices*.

(5.) Formula has *formulae* ; cherub, *cherubim* ; seraph, *seraphim* ; beau, *beaux* (*bôz*) ; monsieur, *messieurs* ; bandit, *banditti*.

The following are some other Foreign Plurals :—

		Latin.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Addendum	addenda	Focus	foci
Animalculum	animalcula	Fungus	fungi
Arcanum	arcana	Polypus	polypi
Datum	data	Radius	radii
Desideratum	desiderata	Stimulus	stimuli
Dictum	dicta	Terminus	termini
Effluvium	effluvia	Apex	apices
Erratum	errata	Vertex	vertices
Medium	media	Vortex	vortices
Memorandum	memoranda	Amanuensis	amanuenses
Stratum	strata	Larva	larvæ
Alumnus	alumni	Nebula	nebulae

Greek.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Analysis	analyses	Parenthesis;	parentheses
Antithesis	antitheses	Thesis	theses
Ellipsis	ellipses	Automaton	automata
Hypothesis	hypotheses	Criterion	criteria
Metamorphosis	metamorphoses	Miasma	miasmata
Oasis	oases		

French.

Bureau	bureaux	Madame	mesdames
Flambeau	flambeaux	Savant	savants

Italian.

Virtuoso	virtuosi	Dilettante	dilettanti
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The present tendency is to reject foreign Plurals; cherubs, seraphs, formulas, memorandums, bandits, &c., are used. Some foreign Nouns are used only in the Plural; as, aborigines, antipodes, agenda, archives, literati, minutiae.

EXERCISES.

What kinds of Nouns have no Singular form? What Nouns, Plural in form, are generally treated as Singular? Mention some Nouns, Plural in form, which are used in both numbers. What Nouns, properly Singular, are now generally Plural? How is the Plural of Compound Nouns generally formed? How do letters and arithmetical figures form the Plural? How do many Nouns from foreign languages form the Plural? How do foreign Nouns in *is* form the Plural? Nouns in *um* and *on*? Most Nouns in *us*? Nouns in *ex* or *ix*? Mention some foreign Nouns used only in the Plural? What is the present tendency with regard to foreign Plurals?

Write out the Plural forms of the following Nouns:—

Series, genus, maid-servant, crisis, addendum, son-in-law, phenomenon, bandit, formula, heir-apparent, lord-justice, focus, virtuoso, man-of-war, blackboard, lord-lieutenant, cherub, bureau, datum, surgeon-major, court-martial, stratum, apex, maid-of-honour, analysis.

Write out the Singular forms of the following Nouns:—

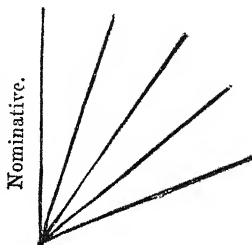
Effluvia, polypi, oases, criteria, radii, errata, vortices, amanuenses, media, alumni, theses, mesdames, ellipses, flambeaux, automata, desiderata, larvæ, hypotheses, miasmata, stimuli, memoranda, parentheses, fungi, messieurs.

Let the pupils question each other on the Plurals and Singulars of Nouns.

CASE.

CASE is that form of the Noun which shows its relation to some other word in the sentence.

In the sentence, "Rama took Govind's book," *Rama* does the action; *book* is that upon which the action is performed; *Govind's* shows to whom the book belonged. Some languages have different endings, showing these relations. These different forms of the Nouns are called *Cases*. The word *case* comes from the Latin *casus*, and means *falling*. The old grammarians represented the subject of a sentence by an upright line, and compared the other forms to lines *falling* from that upright line at different angles.



Hence a collection of the various forms which a Noun might take was called the *Declension*, or *sloping down*, of the Noun. *Declension* comes from *de*, down, and *clino*, to bend.

Sanskrit has eight cases. The terminations were originally distinct words; now they are mere case-endings. In the modern languages of India, the terminations remain distinct. As they are written *after* the Noun, they are called *Post*-positions. The case-endings wanting in English can be expressed by words placed *before* the Noun, and hence called *Pre*-positions. Examples of these three ways of declining Nouns are given below.

	Sanskrit.	Urdu.	English.
Nominative	pitā	pitā	a father
Accusative	pitaram	pitā ko	a father
Instrumental	pitrā	pitā ne	by a father
Dative	pitre	pitā ko	to a father
Ablative	pitus	pitā se	from a father
Genitive	pitus	pitā kā	of a father
Locative	pitari	pitā men	in, on a father
Vocative	pitah	ai pitā	O father

Instrumental denotes that by which a thing is done; *ablative*, taking away; *Locative*, the place where something is done.

The oldest English had six cases: *Nominative*, *Vocative*, *Accusative*, *Genitive* or *Possessive*, *Dative*, and *Instrumental*.

There were several declensions. *Steorra*, a star, had *steorran* in the Possessive; *gifu*, a gift, had *gife*. From the declension given below the present endings of the possessive case and plural number are derived.

Nom. and Voc.	fisc	fisc
Genitive	fiscas (of a fish)	fiscas (fishes)
Dative	fiscu (of fishes)	fiscu (of fishes)
Accusative	fiscu (to or for a fish)	fiscum (to or for fishes)
Instrumental	fisc (fish)	fiscas (fishes)
	fiscé (by or with a fish)	fiscum (by or with fishes)

The tendency of language is to drop terminations. All the old English endings, except the Possessive -s, have disappeared. In the thirteenth century a final *e* represented both the singular and plural dative. This was lost in the fourteenth century, leaving the dative and accusative undistinguished in form from the nominative.

English Nouns have three principal Cases: the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

The Nominative names the Agent, or one who does something; as, Govind brought a slate.

Nominative comes from a word which means *naming*.

The Possessive denotes the *possessor* or owner; as, Rama's book.

The Objective denotes the *object*, or that to which something is done; as, Krishna caught a *bird*.

The Nominative and Objective are *alike* in form.

The two Cases are known by their position or the sense. The Nominative generally comes *before* the verb, and the Objective *after* it; as, Rama struck Govind. To find the Nominative, ask a question by putting *who* or *what* before the verb, and the answer will be the Nominative. When a Noun in the Objective is governed by a verb, it answers to the question formed by putting *whom* or *what* before the verb and its subject. Thus, *Who* struck Govind? Rama (Nominative). *Whom* did Rama strike? Govind (Objective).

The Possessive is formed by adding an *apostrophe* and *s* to the Nominative; as, Joseph's.

The mark ' is called an apostrophe (a-pos'-tro-fay). The word means "turned away." It is so named because it shows that something has been left out, the letter *e*. The word *king's* was formerly written *kinges*. The apostrophe was not used till the 17th century. Milton wrote *Mans disobedience*.

It was once supposed that 's was a short form of *his*; hence John *his* book was written. But 's added to feminine nouns could not represent *her*.

The Possessive is now the only case which changes its form.

The meaning of the Possessive Case may also be expressed by *of*, with the Objective Case after it. Instead of "My brother's book," we may say, "A book of my brother."

Of is called the Norman Possessive, and 's the Old English Possessive.

When the Plural ends in *s*, the Possessive is formed by adding only an *apostrophe*; as, *books'*. When the Plural does not end in *s*, the Possessive is formed as in the Singular; as, *men's*.

Only the apostrophe is added when the plural ends in *s* to avoid

too many hissing sounds. For the same reason, the letter *s* is sometimes omitted in the singular, especially before "sake;" as, "Socrates' wife;" "for conscience's sake." But generally *s* should be retained; as, St. James's, the duchess's carriage, Chambers's Dictionary.

The Possessive is generally used only with living beings or personified objects.

We may say "the fox's tail," but not "the house's roof." In the latter case the preposition *of* is used instead of the inflection; as, "the roof of the house." *Of* is also used with Compound Nouns in the plural; as, "the estates of my brothers-in-law."

Nouns denoting time or space or dignified objects may take the apostrophe and *s*; as, "a day's journey," "a stone's throw," "the court's decree."

Collective Nouns, even when denoting living beings, cannot take the Possessive case. We cannot say "the multitude's uproar."

EXERCISES.

What is *Case*? What is the meaning of *Case*? How did it come to have that meaning in Grammar? What is the *Declension* of a Noun? What is the meaning of *Declension*? How many cases has Sanskrit? What difference is there between the Case-endings in Sanskrit and the Indian vernaculars? How are the Case-endings, wanting in English, expressed? How many Cases had the oldest English? Name them. How were the Case-endings gradually lost? Name the principal Cases of English Nouns. What does the *Nominative* express? What is the meaning of the word *Nominative*? What does the *Possessive* denote? What is understood by the *Objective*? What two Cases are alike in form? How is the *Nominative* known? How the *Objective*? How is the Possessive Singular generally formed? What does the word *apostrophe* mean? Why is it so named? What has been left out? What was 's once supposed to be? How is this disproved? What is the only Case that changes its form? How is Possession often expressed? How is the Possessive Plural formed? Why is *s* sometimes omitted? What is used instead of the Possessive in the case of inanimate objects? What are the exceptions to this? What case do Collective Nouns not take?

Change the Possessives into Objectives with of:—The child's dress. This is Rama's exercise. The sun's rays are very hot to-day. Bring the boys' books. The gentleman's oxen are dead. Who brought your father's letters? The men's hats have been stolen. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever. They live in king's palaces.

Write out sentences in which the following Nouns occur in the Possessive Case, Singular and Plural:—Fox, hen, child, day, goose, fish, lady, brother, church, friend.

Case—continued.

When a name consists of several words, the sign of the Possessive is added only to the last; as, William the Conqueror's tomb.

When there are two or more separate Nouns in the Possessive case, the sign is added to the *last word* when *joint* possession is meant; as, "Govind and Krishna's horse" (one horse).

But when *separate* possession is meant, the sign is added to *each Noun*; as, "Govind's and Krishna's horses" (two horses).

Both *of* and *'s* are used when one of a number of things of the same kind in possession is expressed; as, "This is a book *of Govind's*," that is, Govind has many books, and this is one of them.

The giving of the Cases of Nouns is called the **Declension, Declining, or Inflection** of them.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	lady	ladies	man	men	ox	oxen
<i>Poss.</i>	lady's	ladies'	man's	men's	ox's	oxen's
<i>Obj.</i>	lady	ladies	man	men	ox	oxen

A Noun or Pronoun is said to be in the **Nominative Absolute**¹ when, coming before a participle, it neither agrees with a verb nor is governed by any other word in the sentence; as, The ship having arrived, we landed.

Some English Grammarians give the **Vocative**² and **Dative** as separate Cases. The **Vocative** is used in calling; as, "*Brother*, come." It is also called the **Nominative of Address**. The **Dative**³ denotes the person *to whom* a thing is given, or *for whom* a thing is done; as, He gave *him* a mango; Make *me* a kite. The Dative generally denotes the **Indirect**⁴ object; the Objective, the **Direct** object.

¹ *Ab.* from, *solutum*, to loose, free.

² *Datum*, to give.

³ *Voco*, to call.

⁴ *Ind.*, indirect.

The Nominative, Vocative, Dative, and Objective, are alike in form.

Some transitive verbs have two objects. Thus in—"Give me a mango," *mango* is the direct object, and *me*, the indirect object of *give*.

Some intransitive verbs may take an object of a like meaning; as, "He sighed a sigh." This is called the COGNATE¹ Accusative or Objective, as it comes from the same root as the verb. The object may be similar in meaning, but not in form; as, "It *blew* a *gale*."

EXERCISES.

Where is the sign of the Possessive added in compound names? Where is it placed when *joint* possession is understood? Where when *separate* possession is understood? When are *of* and the Possessive both used? What is giving the cases of Nouns called? What do Declension, &c., mean? Decline baby, woman, fox. When is a Noun said to be in the *Nominative Absolute*? What two other cases do some Grammarians give? How is the *Vocative* used? What is it also called? What does the *Dative* denote? What is it called? What is the Objective called? Which cases are alike in form? What is the *Cognate Accusative* or Object?

Decline the following Nouns.—Boy, wife, child, poet, mouse, son-in-law, Joseph, cow, maid-servant.

Spell or write the Possessive Singular and Plural of.—Parent, daughter, uncle, gentleman, king, male-child, nephew, monarch, negro, chief, life, wolf, major-general, attorney, brother, pony, buffalo, fish.

Make four sentences with a Nominative Absolute in each.

Make four sentences each containing a Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

Make four sentences each containing a Vocative.

Make four sentences with Direct and Indirect Objects.

Give four examples of the Cognate Objective.

Parsing of Nouns.

Parsing means telling the *parts* of speech of words, and their relations to other words in the sentence.

Parsing comes from a word meaning *part* (of speech).

In parsing *Nouns*, give 1. *The Kind* (Common, Proper, &c.). 2. *The Number*. 3. *The Gender*. 4. *The Case*. 5. *The Relation to other words*.

¹ Con, together *gnatus*, to be born. Born of the same family.

The following is an example :—

Rama bought a book.

Rama, Noun, proper, masculine, singular, nominative, subject of *bought*.

Book, Noun, common, neuter, singular, objective, object of *bought*.

Time is saved by omitting the words *gender*, *number*, and *case*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the Nouns in the following sentences :—

Gold is found in the sands of many African rivers. From nothing, nothing can come. The blow did the Saracen very little injury. The *Victoria* went down with the Admiral and many of her crew. On the fifth day of the moon, which, according to the custom of my fathers, I always keep holy, I ascended the high hills of Bagdad. John Huss was a noble martyr for conscience' sake. Abraham had great flocks and herds. The jury found the prisoner guilty. The District Board meets once a month. Bring the bellows, and lend me your scissors. He laughed a hearty laugh. She moves a goddess, and she looks a queen. Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition. What is the difference between the boy's pens and the boys' pens?

THE ADJECTIVE.

An ADJECTIVE is a word which qualifies a Noun; as, *strong men*.

Adjectives are so called because they are added to Nouns. They increase their meaning, but limit its extent. "Strong men" has more meaning than "men"; but it excludes all who are not strong.

An Adjective cannot stand by itself. It must have with it a Noun expressed or understood. In the sentence "The good are happy," *persons* is understood after *good*.

The Adjective in Old English, as in Sanskrit, was varied by gender, number, and case to agree with the Noun. The masculine declension of blind was as follows :—

<i>Singular.</i>	
Nom.	blind
Voc.	blind
Gen.	blind-es
Dat.	blind-um
Acc.	blind-ne
Inst.	blind-e

<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	blind-e
Voc.	blind-e
Gen.	blind-ra
Dat.	blind-um
Acc.	blind-e

The case endings were gradually lost. In the fourteenth century final *e* was used to mark the plural. Before the end of the sixteenth century all inflections had disappeared.¹ In most languages of Northern India some adjectives are declinable for number and gender, and others are not: in those of South India, all adjectives are indeclinable.

An Adjective may qualify another Adjective; as, a *red* hot bar of iron; a *pale* blue dress.

An Adjective is used *attributively*² when it is joined to the noun which it qualifies; as, a *wise* king.

An Adjective is used *predicatively*³ when it forms part of the predicate of a sentence; as, the king is *wise*.

The *Predicate* of a sentence is what is said of the subject.

When the verb is Intransitive or in the Passive Voice, the Adjective qualifies the *subject*; as, He was left *dead*. When the verb is Transitive and in the Active Voice, the Adjective qualifies the *object*; as, The king made him *rich*.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives may be divided into four principal classes: Adjectives of **Quality**, Adjectives of **Quantity**, **Numeral** Adjectives, and **Demonstrative** Adjectives.

I. Adjectives of **Quality**⁴ show the quality or state of the thing named; as, a *fat* man.

Quality comes from a word meaning of *what kind*? Most Adjectives belong to this class. They may be divided into **Common** and **Proper**. **Proper** Adjectives are formed from Proper Nouns; as, *Indian*, *English*.

II. Adjectives of **Quantity**⁵ refer to bulk or size. They show *how much* of a thing is meant; as, *much*, *little*, *some*.

III. **NUMERAL**⁶ ADJECTIVES show *how many* are meant or *in what order*; as, *four*, *first*.

IV. **DEMONSTRATIVE**⁷ ADJECTIVES *point out* the thing spoken of; as *this*, *the*.

The above four classes respectively answer the questions: (1) *Of what sort?* (2) *How much?* (3) *How many?* (4) *Which?*

PRONOMINAL⁸ ADJECTIVES, or **ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS**, may be considered a fifth class.

¹ Except the plurals *these* and *those*. ² *At, ad*, to, *tribuo*, to give. As a quality. ³ *Prædicō*, to proclaim. ⁴ *Qualis*, of what sort or kind. ⁵ *Quantus*, how much. ⁶ *Numerus*, number. ⁷ *De*, down, *monstro*, to point out. ⁸ *Pro*, for, *nomen*, name.

They are Pronouns when they stand by themselves in place of Nouns; and Pronominal Adjectives when they go along with Nouns.

EXERCISES.

What is an *Adjective*? Why are Adjectives so called? What effect have they upon the meaning of Nouns? What must every Adjective have with it? How did Adjectives in Old English differ from the present? What happened to the case-endings? Are Adjectives belonging to the Indian vernacular declined? What may an Adjective qualify besides a Noun? When is an Adjective used *Attributively*? When is it used *Predicatively*? What is the *Predicate* of a sentence? Name the four principal classes into which Adjectives are divided, and give their meanings. How are Adjectives of *Quality* sub-divided? Which questions do the above four classes respectively answer? What may be considered a fifth class?

Name the Adjectives in the following sentences, and state the Nouns they qualify:—That kind man gave my youngest brother four mangoes. The large black dog had a curly tail. The bright moon shines in the clear sky. Those oranges are riper than these green grapes. Which picture do you like best? This money is to be given to that poor beggar. All men are mortal. The two old men walked through the forest all that miserable night. This large school-room holds three hundred boys. The dog followed me all the day long. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. Last of all came the king, more cheerful than most people expected.

Place an Adjective before each of the following Nouns:—Horse, aunt, water, chair, tree, wall, bridge, hill, goat, eagle, river, cloud, ocean, emperor, ivory, ear, ship, fire, wind, squirrel, tiger.

ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

Most Adjectives of Quality have three degrees¹ of Comparison:² the **Positive**,³ **Comparative**, and **Superlative**.⁴

Comparison means placing things together to see how they differ.

The **Positive** expresses the *simple* quality; the **Comparative**, a *higher* or *lower* degree of the quality; the **Superlative**, the *highest* or *lowest* degree; as, *kind*, *kinder*, *kindest*; *kind*, *less kind*, *least kind*.

The **Comparative** is used when *two* objects are compared; the **Superlative** when there are *more than two*.

¹ Steps, ranks; *de*, down, *gradus*, a step. ² *Con*, together, *paro*, to put; a setting together. ³ *Posit'vus*, placed; laid down, actual. ⁴ *Super*, beyond, *latus*, carried; carried above others.

Proper Adjectives are not compared; nor Common Adjectives of Quality which do not allow of change.

Among the latter are Adjectives formed from *Material Nouns*; as, golden, leathern, milky; Adjectives denoting *shape*; as, *square, round*; Adjectives denoting *time*; as, *daily, weekly*.

Rules of Comparison.

Adjectives of *one syllable* are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the Positive; as, hard, harder, hardest.

When the Positive ends in *e*, the letters *r* and *st* only are added; as, wise, wiser, wisest.

When the Positive ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, *y* is changed into *i* before *er* and *est*; as dry, drier, driest.

If a vowel precedes *y*, it is not changed into *i*; as, gay, gayer, gayest.

If the Adjective ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled, as, *red, redder, reddest*. But if it ends in two consonants, or has two vowels before the final consonant, the latter is not doubled; as, *thick, thicker, thickest; weak, weaker, weakest*.

In the Indian vernaculars,¹ Adjectives, as a rule, do not undergo any change to denote comparison. "Wisdom is better than wealth," becomes, "Wisdom than wealth is good." "The elephant is the largest of animals," becomes, "The elephant of all animals is large."

The English forms of comparison, *er* and *est*, are allied to the Sanskrit, which has *tara* and *ishṭa* among its forms for the Comparative and Superlative. *Tara* signifies one of two.

Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most Adjectives of two syllables, are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as, beautiful, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful; diligent, *less* diligent, *least* diligent.

Adjectives of two syllables ending in *e*, *ow*, or *y*, may also be compared like Adjectives of one syllable; as, able, abler, ablest; narrow, narrower, narrowest; happy, happier, happiest.

The Old English form of comparison was by adding *er* and *est*. The new form of prefixing *more* and *most* was derived from the Norman period, and made its appearance about the end of the thirteenth century. *More* and *most* are the Comparative and Superlative of *mā*, connected with the Sanskrit.

¹ Spoken languages; vernaculars, domestic, home.

Any Adjectives may be compared by *more* and *most*, if more pleasing to the ear ; as, *more strong, most sure*.

Two or three centuries ago English writers added *er* and *est* to words of any length ; as, *virtuousest, beautifullest*.

EXERCISES.

What is *Comparison* ? What degrees of Comparison have most Adjectives of Quality ? Explain the three degrees of Comparison, and give the meanings of the words which express them. Which Adjectives of Quality are not compared ? How are Adjectives of one syllable generally compared ? When are *r* and *st* only added ? How are Adjectives of one syllable ending in *y* compared ? When is the final consonant doubled ? How does the Comparison of English Adjectives agree with Sanskrit and differ from the spoken languages of India ? How are Adjectives of two or more syllables compared ? What are the exceptions ? Through what language did *more* and *most* come into use ? Of what are *more* and *most* the Comparative and Superlative ? When may *more* and *most* be used with words of one syllable ? To what did English writers in former times add *er* and *est* ?

Write out the Comparative and Superlative Degrees of the following Adjectives :—

Merry, joyful, pure, hot, difficult, thin, proper, weary, troublesome, rich, idle, bitter, fierce, dry, amiable, interesting, noble, golden, sad, humble, heavy, gay, square, mad, droll, circular, English.

Write out the three Degrees of Comparison of the following Adjectives :—

Fattest, bigger, ugliest, hotter, slenderer, narrowest, rosier, easiest, weaker, loveliest, whiter, tenderest, thicker, broadest, scarcer, cruellest, simplest, Indian.

Mention six Adjectives which cannot be compared.

Rules of Comparison—continued.

Some Adjectives are compared Irregularly,¹ or are Defective :—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
Far	farther	farthest
Forth (<i>adv.</i>)	further	furthest
Fore	former	foremost, first
Good, well	better	best
Hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost
In (<i>prep.</i>)	inner	inmost, innermost

¹ Not regularly.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Late	{ later (time) latter (order)	latest last
Little	less, lesser	least
Many (number)	more	most
Much (quantity)	more	most
Near	nearer	nearest, next
	nether	nethermost
Nigh	nigher	nighest, next
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Out (adv.)	outer, utter	outmost, utmost
		uttermost
Rathe	rather	
Top (noun)		topmost
Up (prep.)	upper	upmost, uppermost

Better, worse, less, more, come from Positives no longer in use.

Farther is used for the *more* distant of two objects. *Further* means *more* in advance or *additional*.

The suffix *most* in *foremost, hindmost, &c.* is not the word *most*. There is an old superlative ending in *ema*. It was forgotten that this was a superlative, and *est* or *ost* was added. *Hindema* became *hindmost*.

Later refers to *time*, and is opposed to *earlier*; *latter* denotes *order*, and is opposed to *former*.

Lesser is a double Comparative, and always an Adjective; as, *Lesser Asia*. *Less* may also be used as an Adverb; as, *less guilty*.

Many refers to *number*; *much* to *quantity*.

More and *most* are Adverbs when placed before *Adjectives* for Comparison; but the Adverb and Adjective should be parsed as one word.

Older and *oldest* are used of both persons and things; *elder* and *eldest* of persons only, and chiefly with reference to members of the same family.

Some Adjectives have no Positive; as *under, undermost*; some have no Comparative; as, *southern, southernmost*.

The Superlative may also be expressed by "King of kings;" "bravest of the brave."

The Comparative Degree is generally followed by *than*; as, He is wiser than his brother. But some Adjectives ending in *-ior* are followed by *to*; as, This is superior to that. Other Adjectives in *-ior* and some English Comparatives, as, *former, latter, &c.*, are used simply as Adjectives in the Positive Degree; as, the *interior* parts, the *latter* rain. They do not take *than* or *to* after them.

The syllable *ish* is sometimes added to the Positive, to lessen its signification; as *black, blackish*. When the Positive ends in *e*, the *e* is omitted before *ish*; as, *white, whitish*.

The Adverb *very* is often prefixed to the Positive to increase its signification by expressing a degree of quality somewhat less than the greatest or Superlative degree; as, *wise, very wise*. *Too* is sometimes wrongly used for *very*; as, "Yesterday was too hot," instead of, "Yesterday was very hot."

Double Comparatives or Superlatives are improper; thus, *more stronger* ought to be only *stronger*.

Formerly they were used, but not now. Shakespeare has *more braver*.

EXERCISES.

Name some Adjectives which are compared irregularly. What do *better, worse, less*, and *more* come from? How are *further* and *farther* used? How do *later* and *latter* differ? How do *lesser* and *less* differ in their use? How do *many* and *much* differ? When are *more* and *most* Adverbs? How are *older* and *elder* used? What do some Adjectives want? How is the Superlative sometimes expressed? By what word is the Comparative followed? What are the exceptions? How is the signification of the Positive sometimes lessened? Spell *white* and *whitish*. Why is the Adverb *very* often prefixed to an Adjective? What word is sometimes wrongly used for *very*? What is wrong in *more stronger*?

Give the Comparatives and Superlatives formed from the following Adverbs and Prepositions: *forth, in, out, up*.

Make sentences showing the difference in meaning between *farther* and *further*, *later* and *latter*, *older* and *elder*.

Make six sentences in which the Comparative is followed by *than*, by *to*, and by *neither*.

Let the pupils question each other.

ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

Adjectives of Quantity refer to bulk or size. They show *how much* of a thing is taken. The following are the principal:—

All, any, both, enough, few, little, much, no, none, some, whole.

Some Adjectives of Quantity are also Adjectives of Number; as, *All men are mortal*; give me *some* nuts.

All Adjectives of Quantity are *indefinite*. *Definite* quantities are expressed by Nouns; as, *A seer of rice*.

Little means *hardly any*; as, "I have *little* money." *A little* means *some*, as, "I have *a little* money."

Much and *little* are the only Adjectives of Quantity which admit of comparison.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES refer to *number*. They show *how many* things are taken or the order in which they stand.

They are divided into three kinds: **Definite, Indefinite, and Distributive.**

I. **Definite Numeral Adjectives** denote exact numbers.

Definite means fixed, exact.

They are divided into three kinds:

1. **Cardinal Numerals** denote *how many*; as, *ten, four*.

Cardinal comes from *cardo*, a *hinge*, that on which a thing turns, the principal part.

From twenty-one to ninety-nine, the *greater* number is placed *first*; but when *and* is put between the words, the *smaller* number is put first; as, *one-and-twenty*. After a hundred the greater number is always placed first, and *and* is put before tens or units; as, *three hundred and sixty-four*.

The Cardinal Numerals may be used in the plural, but they are then Nouns.

2. **Ordinal numbers** denote *what place in order*; as *third, tenth*.

Ordinal numbers may also be classed as Demonstrative Adjectives.

3. **Multiplicatives**¹ show how often a thing is repeated.

Multiplicative means *having the power to increase*. Words of this class are formed by adding *-fold*, *-ble*, or *-ple*; as, *threefold, double, triple*.

II. **Indefinite Numeral Adjectives** do not denote any exact number; as, *all, any, certain, few, many, much, more, most, no, none, several, some, &c.*

Indefinite means *not definite, not fixed*.

All, any, much, no, none, some, &c., denote either *number* or *bulk*, according to the sense.

Any means (1) *one out of many*; as "*Any body* may enter;" (2) *some*; as, "*Did any* persons see him?"

The use of "*no any*" is a common mistake. "*I have no any money,*" should be either, "*I have not any money,*" or "*I have no money.*"

¹ Having the power to multiply; *multus*, many, *placo*, to fold.

Few means a small number, and is opposed to *many*; as, "I have read *few* books." *A few* means *some*, and is opposed to *none*; as, "I have read *a few* books." *The few* means *all* though a small number; as, "I have read *the few* books I have." "*Not a few*" is emphatic for *many*.

Several denotes a small number.

None strictly means *not one*. It is used when the Noun to which it refers is omitted.

No, meaning *not one*, is used for *not a*; as, He is *no* fool.

Many, although plural in meaning, may be joined with a singular noun preceded by *a*; as, *many* a man. Each is supposed to be taken singly.

Some is used with both numbers. It may denote—

1. *One* not in particular; as, *Some* person did it.
2. *An uncertain number*; as, Give him *some* guavas.
3. *About* (with numerals); as, *Some* twenty men. This means twenty men *more or less*. A Definite Numeral is thus made Indefinite.

Many and *few* are the only Numeral Adjectives which admit of comparison.

III. Distributive¹ Numeral Adjectives denote that things are taken one at a time. They are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *several*, *other*.

Distributive means *giving one by one*.

Each, *every*, *either*, *neither* are joined to singular nouns.

Each means two or more things taken one by one.

Either generally means *one of two*; but it also sometimes means *each of two*; as on *either* side, on both sides.

Neither means *not either*.

Every means *all* of a number of things, more than two, taken singly. *Every* four hours means every period of four hours.

Several means *different and each to his own*; as, They went to their *several* homes.

Other means *different from* what has been mentioned. It is sometimes added to *each*, giving it a reciprocal² force; as, Be kind to *each other*.

Another means *one more*; as, Bring *another* pen.

EXERCISES.

To what do Adjectives of Quantity refer? Name the principal. What is the difference between "little" and "a little"? How

¹ Dividing; *dis*, asunder, *tribu*, to allot.

² Acting each on the other.

are *definite* quantities expressed? What do *Numeral Adjectives* show? Into what three classes are they divided? What do *Definite Numeral Adjectives* denote? How are they divided? What do *Cardinal Numerals* denote? What is the meaning of *Cardinal*? How are numbers expressed? What do *Ordinal* numbers denote? How may they also be classed? What are *Multiplicatives*? How are they formed? What are *Indefinite Numeral Adjectives*? What is the meaning of *Indefinite*? Name some of them. Which of them may denote either *number* or *bulk*? Give the meanings of the words explained; as, *any, few, several, none, many, some*. What do the *Distributive Numeral Adjectives* denote? What is the meaning of *Distributive*? Name them. Explain the uses of *each, either, neither, every, several, other, another*.

Write the ordinals of one, two, three, four, five, six, eight, ten, twenty, hundred.

Write sentences including the following words:—Any, all, much, some, each, every, other, many, few.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

The principal *Demonstrative Adjectives* are *a* or *an, the, this, that, yon, yonder, such*.

A or *an* and *the* are called *ARTICLES*.

An *Article* is a word which points to a *Noun*, and shows the extent of its meaning.

Article comes from *articulus, a little joint*. *Articles* are always joined to *Nouns* or words used as *Nouns*.

The name *Article* was correctly given by the Greeks to their "article," because it served as a joint uniting several words together. The Romans, who had no article, applied it to any short word, whether verb, conjunction, or pronoun. Lastly, it was introduced into English to denote *a* and *the*.

Articles are of great value in English. They point out three different forms of the *Noun*, each with a separate meaning. *A man, the man, and man*, are all distinct.

A or *an* is called the *Indefinite Article*, because it does not point out *some one* person or thing; as *a book*; that is, *any book*.

A and *an* were originally *ae* and *ane*, meaning *one*; as *ae man*; *ane angel*. They still express oneness, but not at all emphatically. They are properly *Numeral Adjectives*.

A points to *species*, and *one* to *number*.

"Give me a pen" points out what is wanted—a *pen*—not a *book*, &c. "Give me *one* pen" implies that *one* is asked for, and not more.

The numeral one should not be used instead of the Indefinite Article. "Ceylon is one island" should be "Ceylon is *an* island." *One* is used only when the number is emphatic.

A is *indefinite*, in not pointing out any special person or thing, but it is very *definite* with regard to the *number*.

The *is* called the **Definite Article**, because it points out *some one* person or thing; as, *the* queen; that is, the queen of our *own* country; or the queen that was spoken of.

The *is* a weaker form of *that*. It was formerly declined for gender, number, and case.

A is used before a *consonant*; as, *a* man. *An* is used before a *vowel*, or silent *h*; as, *an* age, *an* hour.

A is used before the long sound of *u*, and before *w* and *y*; as, *a* unit, *a* ewe, *a* week, *a* year. We also say, such a *one*. *An* is used before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an* heroic action; *an* historical account. Humane and humility are exceptions.

A or *an* is employed according as the one or the other is more pleasing to the ear when pronounced along with the word which follows.

In some phrases, as, "All of a size," *a* has its old sense of *one*; but in "twice *a* week," *a* is from *on*. In Old English it was "tuwa on wucan."

EXERCISES.

Name the principal *Demonstrative Pronouns*. Name the *Articles*. What is an *Article*? What is the meaning of *Article*? Why are *Articles* so called? Why are *Articles* of great value in English? Why is *a* or *an* called the *Indefinite Article*? What were *a* and *an* originally? What do they still express? How do *a* and *one* differ? When only should *one* be used? In what respect is *a* *Indefinite* and *Definite*? Why is *the* called the *Definite Article*? Of what word is *the* a weaker form? When is *a* used and when *an*? What is the object of this different usage? What is the sense of *a* in "all of a size?" From what does *a* in "twice a week" come? What is the meaning of *the* in "The more the merrier?"

Place the *Indefinite Article* before the following Words:—Ant, ewe, herb, wave, hero, youth, horse, historical, unicorn, hotel, year,

eunuch, heretical, writer, Eurasian, week, ewer, history, woman, European, honest, heroine, unit.

*Explain the differences between the following sentences:—*I saw a boy in a field. I saw the boy in a field. I saw a boy in the field. I saw the boy in the field. *Correct, "Horse kicked man," giving the four ways in which it may be written.*

The Articles—*continued.*

A Noun without an Article is generally taken in its widest sense; as, *Man* is mortal; that is, *all mankind*.

As a *General Rule*, the Article is placed before *Common Nouns* in the *Singular*, and left out before *Proper Nouns*; thus, "I saw horse," ought to be, "I saw *a* (or *the*) horse;" "He went to the Calcutta," ought to be, "He went to Calcutta."

Proper Nouns point out some particular person, and no Article is needed.

Proper Nouns, Abstract Nouns, and Material Nouns used as Common have Articles placed before them; as, *The Himalayas* (among mountains); *The* industry of Krishna; *The* gold of Australia.

An Adjective used as a Common Noun has an Article placed before it; as, His son is *a* noble; *the* good are great.

A or **an** is used before Nouns in the Singular Number only.

A is used before the *plural* in Nouns preceded by such phrases as, *a few, a great many*; as, *a few* books; *a great many* apples. The number is taken collectively.

The is used before Nouns in both Numbers.

The is used with Superlatives and when emphasis is intended; as, *The highest* mountain; behold *the* man.

The is used with Nouns representing well-known single objects; as, the sun, the ocean, the queen, the army, the nobility, the east, &c.

In the phrase, "*The* sooner *the* better," *the* is not the ordinary definite article; but represents *this*, the old instrumental case of *the* used as a Demonstrative. The phrase is equal to *By how much* the sooner, *by so much* the better. Morris would parse it as an Adverb.

A fuller account of the use of the Articles is given under SYNTAX.

EXERCISES.

How is a Noun without an Article to be generally understood? What is the General Rule for inserting and omitting the Articles? Why do Proper Nouns not need an Article? When do Proper, Abstract, and Material Nouns take Articles? When has an Adjective an Article before it? Before which Number only is the Indefinite Article used? When may it be used before Plural Nouns? Before which Number is *the* used? When is *the* used? What is *the* in the phrase, *The more the merrier*?

Correct.—Bring inkstand. The Bengal is large province. He is a honest man. The Mount Everest is highest mountain in world. Virtuous alone are happy. The silver is cheaper than before. Set him good example. He lives in the Bombay. Diligence of Govind is remarkable. Dog is useful animal. King had large army. The storks eat the frogs. He stayed few days. I saw one tiger in jungle.

Demonstrative Adjectives—*continued*.

The Demonstrative Adjectives, *this* and *that*, have plural forms, *these* and *those*.

This and *that* are the only Adjectives varied for number.

This and *these* are applied to persons or things near at hand, or last named; *that* and *those* to persons or things at a distance in time or place.

That is a Relative Pronoun when it can be turned into *who* or *which*; a Demonstrative Adjective when it is placed immediately before a Noun expressed or understood—or when its place can be supplied by *the*.

This and *that* are sometimes classed as Adjective Pronouns.

Yon and *yonder* are applied to things at a distance. They are now mostly confined to poetry. *Yonder* is properly an Adverb.

Such means *so-like*, *like that*. It may refer to something previously mentioned; as, He is untruthful; I do not like *such* a man. Or it may be used indefinitely; as, I saw him on *such* a day.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective Pronouns, or Pronominal¹ Adjectives, are so called, because they can be used either as Adjectives with the Noun, or as Pronouns for the Noun.

They include the Demonstratives, *this*, *that*, and the Interrogatives² *which*, *what*? The Distributives, *each*, *every*, *either*,

¹ Belonging to or of the nature of a pronoun. ² *Inter*, between, *rogo*, to ask; asking questions.

neither, and the Possessives, *my*, *thy*, *his*, etc. They will be noticed under PRONOUNS.

EXERCISES.

Which Demonstrative Adjectives have plural forms? How are *this* and *that* applied? When is *that* a Relative Pronoun? When a Demonstrative Adjective? How are *this* and *that* sometimes classed? How are *you* and *yonder* applied? What does *such* mean? How is it used? What are Adjective Pronouns? What do they include?

Name the classes to which the following Adjectives belong:—Many, poor, south, enough, latter, large, eight, an, any, every, industrious, golden, Indian, all, both, first, another, certain, handsome, blind, English, twenty, such, fifteenth, easy, historical, same, this, little, whole, threefold, hundred, neither, single, the, eldest, blackest.

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH USED AS ADJECTIVES.

Nouns are sometimes used as Adjectives; as, a *gold* ring; the *village* school.

In Chinese words are not inflected, and the same word may be used as any part of speech. From its few inflections, English permits largely the same interchange.

A *gold* ring may be considered as a contracted form for a ring made of gold; the *village* school, the school of the village.

Adverbs and Prepositions are occasionally employed for Adjectives; as, the *then* king; *after* ages.

The above may also be considered as shortened forms. The *then* king, in full, is, The king *that then reigned*, *after* ages, ages *that are to come after the present*.

ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

Adjectives are often used as Nouns; as, the *pure*, the *deep*.

In some cases Nouns may be understood; as *pure persons*, the *deep sea*. But Adjectives are changed into Nouns when they can be used without Nouns, or can be varied by number and case. The following are some examples:

The Bengali language. He speaks Bengali. A Bengali. The Bengalis. In the first example Bengali is an Adjective; in the others it is a Noun. So with the following: A noble king. He is a noble. A noble's privileges. The nobles held out.

Abstract Nouns are sometimes formed from Adjectives by placing the Definite Articles before them; as, the *true* for truth, the *beautiful* for beauty.

The following are other examples of Adjectives used as Nouns: secrets, solids, liquids, valuables, natives, mortals.

PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are parsed by mentioning their class, their inflexions, and their relation to other words. Thus: He is a wiser man than his brother.

A, Demonstrative Adjective, called the Indefinite Article, belonging to the Noun *man*. *Wiser*, Adjective of quality, Comparative from *wise*, limiting *man*.

When an Adjective takes the place of a Noun, it may be parsed just as the Noun itself would be. *The hungry* were filled. *The hungry*, an Adjective used as a noun, plural, common, nominative to were filled.

EXERCISES.

What other parts of speech are used as Adjectives? Give examples, and mention how they are explained. How are Adjectives often used? Give examples and their explanation. How are Abstract Nouns sometimes formed from Adjectives? Give examples of Adjectives used as Nouns. How are Adjectives parsed? How are they parsed when they take the place of Nouns?

Parse fully all the Adjectives and Nouns in the following sentences :—

These mangoes are not yet ripe. All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy. The old monkey played many funny tricks on its little friend. The cruel stroke of the whip on the back of the poor donkey brought tears to the eyes of the kind child. Little strokes fell great oaks. Careless boys often write exercises with many errors. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. The two books are sold for six annas. The enraged general ordered every tenth man to be shot. Henry the Eighth was an English king. The garden on the other side has an iron gate. All men are not alike. Yonder hill is very high. Did you see the lady's pale blue dress? Sweet day! so cool, so calm, so bright. Tired Nature's sweet restorer, balmy sleep. The greater the new power

they create, the greater seems their revenge against the old. We two saw you four set on four.

THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in place of a Noun; as, Govind is not here; *he* is in the playground.

One use of Pronouns is to prevent the repetition of Nouns. Instead of "Rama lost Rama's book when Rama was going to Rama's home," we say, "Rama lost his book, when he was going to his home." They also serve other purposes. Some Pronouns have the force of Conjunctions in connecting sentences.

A word is not a Pronoun unless it is used as a substitute for a Noun. In "this book," "that book," *this* and *that* are properly Adjectives.

As the Pronoun stands for a Noun, it always refers to something which has been named. It must also be of the same number, gender, and person as the Noun for which it stands.

Pronouns are among the oldest parts of speech, and have, therefore, undergone many changes. In spite of this they have preserved more of the old inflections than any other part of speech, unlike the English Adjective which has lost them all, and the Noun which has parted with most of them. They show how one case may replace another, as in *you* for *ye*; how the plural may take the place of the singular, as in *you* for *thou*.

When a Pronoun stands alone as the subject or object of a verb, it is said to be used *Substantively*,¹ as, *He* came; Rama struck *him*. When it modifies a noun, it is said to be used *Adjectively*; as, *My* horse is black.

The principal classes of Pronouns are **Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative.**

Adjective, Reflexive, Indefinite, Distributive, and Reciprocal Pronouns are other classes.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Personal Pronouns are so called because they name the *person* speaking, spoken to, or spoken of. There are three Persons.

The **First Person** denotes the person *speaking*: as, *I*, *we*, &c.

The **Second Person** denotes the person *spoken to*: as, *thou*, *you*, &c.

¹ As a Noun. A Noun is sometimes called a *Substantive*, as expressing something that *exists*: *sub*, under, *sto*, to stand.

The **Third Person** denotes the person or thing *spoken of*; as, *he, she, it*.

The Pronouns *I* and *thou* imply that one person is speaking to another. Strictly, they are the only *Personal* Pronouns.

He, she, and it are rather *Demonstrative* than *Personal* Pronouns.

There is distinction of *gender* only in the Pronouns of the third person. The *speaker* and the *person spoken to* do not need to be told each other's sex.

EXERCISES.

What is a *Pronoun*? What is one use of a Pronoun? What force have some of them? When is a word properly a Pronoun? What is it when joined to a Noun? To what does a Pronoun always refer? How must it agree with the Noun? How do Pronouns differ in their inflections from other parts of speech? What changes have taken place in them? When are Pronouns used *Substantively*, when *Adjectively*? Name the four principal classes of Pronouns. What other classes are there? Why are *Personal* Pronouns so called? What do the three Persons denote? What are strictly the only *Personal* Pronouns? What do they imply? What are *he, she, and it* properly? Why is there distinction of Gender only in Pronouns of the third Person?

The Pronoun—continued.

Declension of Personal Pronouns.

The Personal Pronouns are thus declined:—

I, First Person, *Masculine* or *Feminine*.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative</i>	I	We
<i>Possessive</i>	My or Mine	Our or Ours
<i>Objective</i>	Me	Us

I is the Pronoun for the person speaking, and does not merely stand in place of his name. *We* is not equal to *I + I*, because there is only one *I*. We is really *I + you, I + he, or I + they*.

The First Personal Pronoun is made up of parts of different words. This applies to some other languages. Sanskrit has *aham*, plural *vayam*. The roots of the other cases are *mā, āva, na, asma*. Latin, *ego, me, nos*. Old English, *ic, me, wit, unc*. In modern English *c* has disappeared.

In *me-thinks*, *me* is a dative form. The verb is the Old English *thencan*, to seem, to appear, not *thencan*, to think.

We is used when one speaks for himself and others; as, *we* believe it to be so. Persons in high authority, as the Empress of India, often use *we*. Authors and editors use *we*. This is called

the editorial use of *we*. *We* is used for men in general; as, *We* are weak and fallible.

Thou, Second Person, Masculine or Feminine.

<i>Nominative</i>	Thou	Ye or You
<i>Possessive</i>	Thy or Thine	Your or Yours
<i>Objective</i>	Thee	You

Thou, thine, and thee are from the same root, allied to the Sanskrit *tvam*, the Greek *su* and *tu*, and the Latin *tu*. The plural *ye*, like the Latin *nos*, is from a different root. In Old English *I* and *thou* had dual forms; as, *wit*, we two; *git*, ye two.

Thou, in Shakspeare's time, was (1) the pronoun of affection towards friends, (2) of good-humoured superiority to servants, (3) of contempt or anger to strangers. It had, however, already fallen somewhat into disuse, and being regarded as archaic,¹ was naturally adopted (4) in the higher poetic style, and in the language of solemn prayer.—*Dr. Abbot*.

In Old English *ye* was used as a nominative, and *you* as a dative or accusative. In the English Bible, this distinction is carefully observed. *Ye* is now confined to poetry.

In English, as in the Indian vernaculars, the Plural *you* is used for the singular, as a mark of respect. The verb in such a case must be plural. In German the respectful mode of address is to use the third person. "How do *you* do?" is rendered "How do *they* find *themselves*?"

He, She, It, Third Person.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neu.</i>	<i>All Genders.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He	She	It	They
<i>Poss.</i>	His	Her or Hers	Its	Their or Theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	Him	Her	It	Them

The Old English Third Personal Pronouns were *he*, *heo*, *hit*. The Possessive of *hit* was *his*. The form *its* is modern. *His* is used in the translation of the English Bible, published in 1611; as, "If the salt has lost *his* savour." The Old English Pronouns were formed from only one root *hi*; Modern English contains the roots *hi*, *se*, and *tha*. *She* replaced the old form *heo*. *She* is the feminine of the Definite Article which in Old English was *se*, *Masc.*, *seo*, *Fem.*, and *that*, *Neut.* *Her* (dative) comes from *heo*, with the feminine suffix *re*. It has lost its initial *h*. The *t* is an old neuter suffix, cognate with *t* in Sanskrit; as, in *tat*, that. The old dative of *it* is *him*, which came to be used instead of the old objective *hine*.

It is often applied to living beings where sex is not marked; as, *infant*, *dog*, *ant*.

It may be used not only in place of the name of an object, but instead of a clause of a sentence; as, *To learn his lessons well is*

¹ Ancient; archæ, beginning.

the scholar's duty ; or, *It* is the scholar's duty to learn his lessons well. In such expressions as, *It ruins*, *It freezes*, *it* does not stand for either a Noun or a clause of a sentence, but is used to point out the effect of some cause not mentioned.

EXERCISES.

Decline the Pronoun *I*. What does *I* denote ? What does *we* mean ? What is *me* in methinks ? What are the uses of *we* ? Decline *thou*. How was *thou* used in Shakespeare's time ? What difference was there in Old English between *ye* and *you* ? Why is *you* used for the singular ? Decline *he*, *she*, and *it*. What was the original form of *it* ? What was formerly used instead of *its* ? To what living beings is *it* applied ? For what may *it* be used ? In expressions like *It freezes*, what does *it* denote ?

Give the Person, Gender, Number, and Case of the Personal Pronouns in the following sentences :—

Me he restored unto my office, and him he hanged. They gave each of us a rupee. He was wiser than you. Have patience with me, and I will pay thee all. Lend me your book. I told him to give it you. Do you think the boys saw us when they were on the hill ? When the postman brings the parcel, will you tell him that I shall pay it ? Rama's book was in his desk, though he could not find it when you sent him to seek it. If sinners entice thee, consent thou not. He wants you to go to him at once. Will you go with us to the playground ?

Pronouns—continued.

The Possessive Cases of most of the Personal Pronouns have two forms.

My, thy, her, our, your, their are used when placed before their Nouns ; as, *My* book, *her* slate.

They are then said to be used attributively.

Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs are used when placed after their Nouns ; as, This book is *mine* ; That slate is *hers*.

They are then said to be used predicatively.

The forms *mine* and *thine* are sometimes used attributively, but only before a Noun beginning with a vowel ; as, "O mine enemy !" "Thine anguish."

The apostrophe should not be used with *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*. Write *yours*, not *your's*.

Some grammarians call the above *Possessive Adjective Pronouns*; or *Pronominal Adjectives*. Others regard them simply as Pronouns. Nouns in the Possessive are similarly used. We can say "Rama's book," or "That book is Rama's, not yours."

The word *own* is sometimes added to the Possessive case to render it more emphatic or forcible; as, It is *your own* fault.

These are sometimes called *compound Possessives*.

REFLEXIVE¹ PRONOUNS.

Reflexive Pronouns denote the *coming back of an action* upon the doer. They are used when we speak of doing something *to or for oneself*; as, Love *thyself* last; He that wrongs his friend wrongs *himself* more.

They are compounds of self with the Personal Pronouns and one.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Myself	ourselves
Thyself, yourself	yourselves
Himself, herself, itself	themselves

Also *oneself*, which has no Plural.

Formerly the Pronoun was used reflexively without self; as, I can buy *me* what I want.

The word *self* when used alone is a Noun; as, To thine own *self* be true. In *self*-same, it is an Adjective.

Reflexive Pronouns are sometimes used simply for emphasis; as, He *himself* did it.

EXERCISES.

What two forms have the Possessive Cases of most of the Personal Pronouns? How are they used? In what two ways are they said to be used? When are *mine* and *thine* sometimes used attributively? When should the apostrophe not be used. Why is the word *own* sometimes added to the Possessive Case? What are such words sometimes called? What do the *Reflexive* Pronouns denote? When are they used? How are they formed? Name them. What does *oneself* want? How were the Pronouns formerly sometimes used reflexively? What part of speech is *self* when used alone?

¹ *Reflexus*, bent back.

What is it in *self*-same ? How are Reflexive Pronouns sometimes used ?

Parse the Pronouns in the following sentences, mentioning whether those ending in self are reflexive or simply emphatic :—

His book was lost, so he used ours. Have you your book or mine ? I have both my own and yours. I myself will do it. I hurt myself. You may take your book with you ; I shall leave mine at home. Help yourself, and others will help you. The glass did not break itself. That book is not theirs, but ours. We cannot see ourselves as others see us. The little boy lost himself in the jungle.

Make five sentences with hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

Make four sentences each containing a Reflexive Pronoun.

Make four sentences each containing one of the Pronouns MYSELF, &c., used simply for emphasis.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative Pronouns are so called, because they point out (as with the finger) whatever is *spoken about*, and are used instead of it.

The principal Demonstrative Pronouns are, *he, she, it, this, and that*, with their Plurals.

He, she, and it are generally called **Personal Pronouns**, because they point out the Third person as distinct from the First and Second ; but they are properly *Demonstrative Pronouns*.

That was originally the neuter of *the*. The *t* in *that* is the old neuter suffix, as in it. *This* is more emphatic than *the*, and was originally equal to *the-the*.

This and that, with their plurals **these and those**, are **Adjectives** when they are followed by a Noun or require some Noun to be understood after them ; as, I take *this* place ; you take *that*—place understood. They are **Pronouns** when they are used instead of Nouns previously mentioned, and cannot have Nouns after them ; as, "To be or not to be—*that* is the question."

This refers to something near at hand or last mentioned ; **that** to something at a distance or not last mentioned ; as, virtue and vice have different results ; *this* (the latter) leads to misery, *that* (the former) to happiness.

The one, the other ; the former, the latter, &c., serve the same purpose.

Some Demonstrative Pronouns are called **Indefinite** because they do not point any particular subject, but persons or things in general ; as, *one, none, other, another, such, same, &c.*

One is the adjective *one* used as a pronoun. *It can be used for any person or for a particular person. As a Pronoun it can be put in the possessive case and can take a plural form ; as, One can do what one likes with *one's* own ; Bring some big *ones*.

None is a shortened form of *not one*. It is used when the noun to which it refers is omitted ; as, There is *none*.

Other and **another** are used both as Adjectives and as Pronouns. As Pronouns they may be declined ; as, Do not laugh at another's pain.

Such is used as a Pronoun when it stands for a Noun ; as, If you are a friend, show yourself *such*. It may be used for either number. Before a singular noun it is often followed by *a* ; as, In *such* a night as this.

Same is usually preceded by *the, this, that, or self*, and followed by *as* ; as, He is the *same* as ever he was.

EXERCISES.

Why are **Demonstrative** Pronouns so called ? Name the principal. Why are *he, she, and it* often called **Personal** Pronouns ? Why ? What are they properly ? What was *that* originally ? To what was *this* originally equal ? When are *this* and *that* Adjectives, when Pronouns ? To what does *this* refer ? to what *that* ? What other expressions are used similarly ? Why are some Demonstrative Pronouns called **Indefinite** ? Name the principal. How is *one* used ? What is the force of *none* ? When is it used ? How are *other* and *another* used ? When is *such* a Pronoun ? When is *such* often followed by *a* ? By what is *same* generally preceded and followed ?

Purse the Adjectives and Pronouns in the following sentences :—

Give that book to Govind. These mangoes are for me ; those are for you. Do you choose this one or that ? Who told you that ? That is a fine ship. Such toil in such a place was too much for him. After that I shall say no more. This is my own, my native land. One does not know what to say. Some to the shores do fly, some to the woods. Then none was for a

party. How all was done, let others judge. He can weep his sorrows with another's eyes. If you do this, I shall do that. Give him the other book, not this. He came one day to see me. I wish a white horse rather than a black one.

Make four sentences showing the use of *this* and *that*. Make six sentences each containing one of the words, *one*, *none*, *other*, *another*, *such*, *same*.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A RELATIVE Pronoun is so called because it *relates* or *refers* to some word *going before*, called the **Antecedent**.¹ It also joins sentences or parts of sentences like a Conjunction; as, The student *who* passed is here.

Relative comes from a word meaning *carried back*. A Relative Pronoun carries back our thoughts to some word going before it in the sentence. *Antecedent* means *going before*. In the above sentence *who* is a *Relative*, and *student* is its *antecedent*. Other Pronouns refer to Nouns; but Relative Pronouns differ in having the force of Conjunctions.

In the languages of Northern India the Relative is placed before its antecedent. The languages of Southern India have no Relatives, their place being supplied by participles.

The RELATIVE PRONOUNS are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. As and but are also employed as Relatives.

In the oldest period, *who*, *which*, and *what* were not Relative but Interrogative Pronouns. *Whose* and *whom* were established as relatives as early as the thirteenth century; *who* did not come into common use before the end of the sixteenth century. *That* was originally the neuter singular demonstrative of *se*, *seo*, *that*. It came in during the twelfth century to supply the place of the indeclinable relative *the*, and in the fourteenth century it was the ordinary relative. *Which* is compounded of *who*, *like*. *What* was the neuter of *who*. The *t* is the old suffix for the neuter gender.

Relative Pronouns have the singular and plural alike.

Who is either masculine or feminine; *that* is masculine, feminine, or neuter; *which* is now neuter; *what*, as a Relative Pronoun, is always neuter.

That and *what* are not varied by case. *Who* and *which* are thus declined:—

<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>		<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	Who	<i>Nom.</i>	Which
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose	<i>Poss.</i>	Whose
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom	<i>Obj.</i>	Which

¹ *Ante*, before, *cedo*, to go.

Who is used of persons ; as, The man *who* came.

Which is used of the lower animals and things without life ; as, The dog *which* barks ; The book *which* was lost.

It was formerly used like *who* ; as, Our Father *which* art in heaven. It is still applied to very young children.

That is applied both to persons and things ; as, The soldier *that* shot it ; The house *that* I built.

That is now used instead of *who* or *which* —

(a) After the superlative degree of Adjectives ; as, This is the best picture *that* I ever saw.

(b) After two antecedents, one requiring *who* and the other *which* ; as, The boy and the dog *that* you saw.

(c) As the restrictive, limiting or defining Relative ; as, The book *that* I bought is lost. *Who* or *which* connects two co-ordinate¹ or independent sentences ; as, I met a man *who* told me ; Take care of the book *which* will be of great use to you.

That cannot be used as a Relative after a Preposition. We cannot say, "This is the man with *that* I went." Nor can it be used instead of *whose*.

What is equal to *that which*. It is used only for things.

It is used when the Antecedent is omitted ; as, This is what he wanted (= the thing that).

Who, which, and what are combined with *so* and *ever* to form Compound² Relatives ; as, *whoso*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatsoever*, and *whichsoever*.

Compound Relatives have a wider meaning than the simple Relatives. "*Whoever* disobeys shall be punished" denotes *every-one*. They embrace both the Relative and the Antecedent.

Some of them are now seldom used, especially those containing *so*.

As is used as a Relative after *such*, *the same*, *as many*, and sometimes after *as much*, *so much*. It is applied to both persons and things. Tears *such* as angels weep ; This is *the same* as yours ; I have *as much* as I want.

But is a Relative when it means *that not*. It is used after *no*, *not*, *none*, or other negative. It is sometimes called the *Negative*³ Relative ; as, There was no woman *but* wept.

No Pronoun is used after *but* as a Relative ; as, There is no boy in the class *but he* is attentive—omit *he*.

¹ Holding the same rank—not depending on another.

² Mixed, not simple. ³ Denying, *negō*, to say no.

When, where, whence, with their compounds, are sometimes used as Relative Pronouns. They are called **Adverbial Relatives**. As, "I came *when* I was wanted;" "This is *where* I found it;" "He returned to the place *whence* he came."

Some grammarians consider them to be mere Adverbs.

EXERCISES.

Why is a *Relative* Pronoun so called? What is the meaning of *Relative*? What is the meaning of *Antecedent*? How do Relatives differ from other Pronouns? How is the Relative placed in the languages of Northern India? How is the place of Relatives supplied in the languages of Southern India? Name the Relative Pronouns. What are their Genders? Decline the Relative Pronouns. How are the Relative Pronouns applied? When is *that* used instead of *who* or *which*? What is the meaning of *what*? When is *what* used? What are the Compound Relatives? How do Compound Relatives differ in meaning from Simple Relatives? Which of them are now seldom used? How is *as* used as a Relative? When is *but* a Relative? After what word is it used? What words are sometimes called *Adverbial Relatives*?

Parse the Relative Pronouns and their Antecedents in the following sentences —

We do not always get what we want. I saw the man of whom you spoke. Whom did he mention? I wish to know who told you. Why do you tell me what I know already? Is that the man who did it? He is the best that I know. Whose book is this? This is what I want. I have as much as I need. Is this a dagger which I see before me? The boy and the dog that were lost have been found. The gate which was broken has been mended. He is not such a good scholar as I expected. There is no disease so slight but may become serious if neglected. Whoever told you is mistaken.

Supply the omitted Pronouns in the following sentences :—

The boy brought the books had been lost. People are usually kind to those kind to them. The man and his donkey you saw have gone away. This is the best can be got. Do not go with such think lightly of lying. Attend to your teacher tells you.

Make four sentences showing the uses of *that*.

Make six sentences showing the uses of *who*, *which*, *what*, *whoever*, *as*, *but*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, ETC.

The INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are **who**, **which**, and **what**, with their compounds. They are used in asking questions.

Who, *which*, and *what* were Interrogatives before they became Relatives.

Who is masculine or feminine, and is used only of persons. The Possessive is *whose*, and the Objective *whom*. It is the same in both numbers; as, *Who* is with you? *who* are to go? It is *indefinite*. "*Who* did it?" supposes complete ignorance of the person.

Whom was originally a dative, but it is now used only as an objective. *To whom* is used instead of the simple dative.

Which is applied to persons and things in both numbers. It is a compound word, meaning *who-like—of what sort?* It refers to one out of a definite number; as, *Which* is the boy? *which* are wanted?

What, used as a noun, is always neuter; as, *What* do you want? When used as an adjective, it may be applied to both persons and things; as, *What* king? *What* queen? *What* books? It is *indefinite*.

When *what* refers to persons, it is followed by a noun; as, *What* man said so?

Who is he? asks a person's name, &c.

Which is he? asks the person meant in a group.

What is he? asks a person's employment, &c.

Whether, *which of two?* is rarely used in modern English except as a Conjunction.

Whoever, **whichever**, and **whatever**, are Compound Interrogatives.

The DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERAL ADJECTIVES, **each**, **every**, **either**, **neither**, are sometimes used as Pronouns.

Distributive, as already explained, denotes that things are taken one at a time. They are Adjectives when they qualify Nouns, and Pronouns when used instead of Nouns.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS denote *acting in return*. They are **each other** and **one another**.

Reciprocal means *backward and forward*.

Each other properly refers to *two* persons or things; as, Rama and Govind loved *each other*.

One another refers to *more than two* persons or things; as, The boys pelted *one another*.

PARSING OF PRONOUNS.

In parsing Pronouns give 1. *The Kind*; 2. *Person*; 3. *Number*; 4. *Gender*; 5. *Case*; 6. *Syntax*.

"We saw ~~the~~ person whom you named."

We—1st personal pronoun, plural, common gender, nominative, subject to the verb *saw*.

Saw—Verb.

The—Definite article, qualifying *person*.

Person—Noun, common, singular, common gender, objective, governed by *saw*.

Whom—Relative pronoun, singular, common gender, agreeing with its antecedent *person*, objective, governed by *named*.

You—2nd personal pronoun, plural, common gender, nominative, subject to the Verb *named*.

Named—Verb.

EXERCISES.

Name the *Interrogative* Pronouns. How are they used? How is *who* used? How is *which* applied? How is *what* used? How is *whether* used? Name the *Compound Interrogatives*. Name the *Distributive* Pronouns. What do they denote? Name the *Reciprocal* Pronouns. What does reciprocal mean? How are *each other* and *one another* used? In parsing Pronouns, what particulars should be given?

Parse the Pronouns in the following sentences:—

Bear ye one another's burdens. Krishna and his wife loved each other tenderly. Who steals my purse steals trash. His book was lost, so he used ours. These guavas are for you; those are for me. Enough has not been given. Any one may go in. He has my pen and I have his. How could you be so cruel as to kill the little fly? Is this man honest, do you think? I am monarch of all I survey. Few shall part where many meet. Each had his appointed place. He prayeth best who loveth best. What have you done with the money which I gave you? The horse is theirs; I cannot tell what they have done with it. We do not intend to trouble ourselves about the matter. What o'clock is it? Mine is the same as yours.

Make two sentences in which the Relative is used restrictively, and two in which it is used conjunctively.

Make three sentences in which *that* is preferable to *who* or *which*.

Mention the different uses of the pronoun *it*, giving one example of each.

THE VERB.

A VERB is a word which declares or tells something ; as, Krishna reads ; Rama is sick.

Verb comes from the Latin *verbum*, a word ; because it is the most important word in a sentence. There can be no sentence without a Verb. Words are meaningless without it. A Verb has been called a *telling word*.

That which is spoken of, is called the Subject of the Verb. *That to which some thing is done*, is called the Object.

To find the Subject, put *who* or *what* before the Verb ; the answer will be the subject. To find the Object, put *whom* or *what* after the Verb.

A Verb declares of its subject that *it does something*, or *has something done to it* ; or, *is something*.

To be is the only Verb which asserts what a thing *is* ; hence it is called the *Verb substantive*. It is likewise sometimes called the Copula Verb, because it joins the Noun to what is asserted of it ; as, Man *is* mortal.

Verbs are divided into two great classes—Transitive and Intransitive.

A Transitive Verb denotes action passing from the *doer* to an *object* ; as, Rama *struck* the table.

Transitive comes from the Latin *transire*, to pass over. We can think of the action as *passing over* from the actor to the object.

A Transitive Verb may also be defined to be a Verb that requires an object.

When the object of a Transitive Verb is the same as its subject, the Verb is said to be **Reflexive** ; as, Love *thymself* least.

Verbs are often reflexive in *meaning* though not in form, the reflexive Pronoun being omitted ; as, He kep' (himself) out of the way.

A Reciprocal Verb is a Transitive Verb expressing mutual action and reaction between the subject and the object ; as, They *love each other*.

An **Intransitive Verb** expresses an action that does not go beyond the *doer* ; as, *We walk*.

Intransitive means *not transitive, not going beyond*.

Intransitive Verbs also express being or a state of being ; as, *To be, to rejoice*.

Some Transitive Verbs may become Intransitive by expressing the action *generally* ; as, *Fire burns* ; *I hear*.

Some Intransitive Verbs are turned into Transitive by adding Prepositions to them ; as, *She laughed at him*.

Verbs of this class are sometimes called **Prepositional Verbs**.

In some cases an inseparable Preposition *prefixed* has the same effect ; as, *He overcame his opponent*.

Some Intransitive Verbs take *cognate* objects after them ; as, *He fought a good fight*. This is used to intensify the meaning of the Verb.

Some Transitive Verbs take *two* objects after them, one of the *thing* and one of the *person*, distinguished as the *direct* and *indirect* objects.

In the sentence, *I gave him a rupee*, the *direct* object is *rupee*; *him* is the *indirect* object. The prepositions *to* or *for* are generally understood.

Incomplete Verbs are those which require some other word to give a complete sense ; as, *be, seen, become, appear, &c.*

They neither take an object after them like Transitive Verbs ; nor do they of themselves give a meaning as Intransitives do.

"He seems," does not express a complete sense. A Noun or Adjective in apposition with the subject is required ; as, *He seems a stranger*.

EXERCISES.

What is a Verb? What is the meaning of Verb? Why is the Verb so called? What are the *Subject* and *Object* of a Verb? How are they known? What does a Verb declare of its subject? What is peculiar about the Verb *to be*? What names are given to it? Into what two great classes are Verbs divided? What does *Transitive* mean? What is a *Reflexive* Verb? What is sometimes omitted? What is a *Reciprocal* Verb? What is an *Intransitive* Verb? What does *intransitive* mean? How are some Transitive Verbs turned

into Intransitive? How are some Intransitive Verbs turned into Transitive? What are such Verbs called? What objects do some Intransitive Verbs take after them? What *two objects* do some Transitive Verbs take after them? What are *Incomplete Verbs*?

Tell whether the following Verbs are Transitive, Intransitive, or Incomplete—A soft answer turneth away wrath. I hope you will soon come to see us. Can you lend him your pen? Find out who broke it. Go thou and do likewise. Thou shalt not steal. Give me a couple. My head aches. The grass was cut yesterday. The fire is burning brightly. Money makes fiends. The child blows bubbles. The wind blows. Rama is bathing in the tank. I think that it is so. The nightingale sings sweetly. Krishna wrote a letter to his father. Govind looks well.

Write six sentences having Transitive Verbs, six with Intransitive Verbs, and three with Incomplete Verbs.

INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB.

Verbs are inflected for **Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.**

VOICE.¹

VOICE shows whether the subject of a Verb acts or is acted upon.

There are two Voices—the **Active and Passive.**

The **Active Voice** denotes that the subject of the Verb acts; as, He *wrote* a letter.

The **Passive Voice** denotes that the subject of the Verb is acted upon; as, A letter *was written* by him.

Passive comes from *passus*, which means to suffer.

Voice denotes the form in which a *Transitive Verb* is used. The terms *Active* and *Passive* do not denote distinct classes of Verbs. The same action may be expressed by either Voice.

The *object* in the Active Voice becomes the *subject* in the Passive Voice.

When the *agent* is chiefly noticed, the *Active Voice* is used, and when the *Object*, the *Passive Voice*.

There are no inflections in English that show the Passive Voice. It is formed by prefixing to the Past, or Passive Participle of the

¹ *Voces, sound.*

Verb, the several moods and tenses of the Verb to be, which thus becomes an *Auxiliary Verb*, indicating the *Passive Voice*.

The agent in the *Passive Voice* has the word *by* before it, either expressed or understood.

Verbs which take *two* objects after them in the *Active Voice*, can take *one* in the *Passive*; as :

Active.

I gave him a rupee.

Passive.

A rupee was given him by me ;

He was given a rupee by me.

Either of the two objects may be the subject.

Intransitive Verbs have no object, and therefore have no *Passive Voice*.

But Intransitive Verbs, with Prepositions, used as Transitives, have the *Passive Voice*, as, He was laughed at by all.

EXERCISES.

'How are Verbs *inflected*?' What does *Voice* show? What are the two Voices? Explain the difference between the *Active* and the *Passive Voice*. What is the meaning of the word *Passive*? What changes take place in the *Object* and *Subject*? When is the *Active Voice* used and when the *Passive*? How is the *Passive Voice* expressed in English? What word is prefixed to the agent? What can Verbs which take two objects in the *Active Voice* take in the *Passive*? Which Verbs have no *Passive Voice*? How may Intransitive Verbs have a *Passive Voice*?

Change the Verbs in the following sentences from the Active to the Passive Voice.—Columbus discovered America. The boys ate some mangoes. Govind will gain the prize. The dog bit his leg. He gave us all that we wanted. The master reproved us for our conduct. The owner drove him out of the field. I showed him the picture. I have lost three rupees. My father gave me some money. Our habits make us slaves.

Change the Verbs in the following sentences from the Passive to the Active Voice.—The glass was broken by Govind. Britain was conquered by the Romans. Rama's turban was torn by the dog. The copy may have been written by Hari. All the money will be spent by the extravagant son. Many have been ruined by gambling. A new dress was bought for him by his father. The travellers were overtaken by a storm.

MOOD.¹

Mood shows the *mode* or *manner* of the action expressed by the Verb.

¹ *Modus, manner.*

There are Four Moods—Indicative,¹ Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.

The name Potential Mood has been given to such forms as, *He can read*; but it is now generally given up. *Can* is in the Indicative; *read* is in the Infinitive. *To* is left out after *can*, *may*, &c. Potential² means *having power*.

The Indicative Mood simply declares a thing, or it asks a question; as, *He runs*; *Who knows*?

The Subjunctive³ Mood is so called because it is *subjoined* to some other sentence. It states a thing *conditionally* or as depending upon something else; as, *I will go if he come*; *Were he here, he would tell you*.

It usually follows such words, expressed or understood, as *if*, *unless*, *though*, *lest*, &c., but these are not a part of the Verb.

The Subjunctive is always subjoined to some other statement to express a condition or supposition; hence it is sometimes called the *Conditional*⁴ Mood.

Doubt or *uncertainty* is expressed. If there is nothing doubtful the Indicative should be used; as, "*If it be so*" (doubtful); "*If it is so*" (not doubtful).

The Subjunctive is used for *an intention not carried out*; as, The order of the Board is that you *be* allowed three months' leave.

A wish contrary to the fact is expressed by the Subjunctive; as, "*Were he here*" (which he is not). In this case the Conjunctions are omitted.

The use of the Subjunctive is dying out in modern English.

The Imperative⁵ Mood commands, advises, or entreats; as, *Do this*; *Forgive and forget*; *Spare his life*.

The Imperative is the root of the Verb from which the other parts are derived.

It has only *one Tense*—the present, and one *Person*—the second. *Command* may also be expressed in other ways; as, *Thou shalt not kill*; *You must do it*.

The Infinitive⁶ Mood simply names the action, and is not limited by time, person, or number; as, *To write*.

The Infinitive is generally preceded by the Preposition *to*; which is sometimes called its *sign*. The Infinitive once had *no to* before it, but was expressed by the suffix *-an*; as, *drinc-an*, to drink.

¹ *Re-di-co*, to point out. ² *Potens*, able. ³ *Sub*, under, *junctus*, joined. ⁴ *Con*, together, *datum*, to give; depending upon something else. ⁵ *Im-pe-ro*, to command. ⁶ *In*, nob, *finis*, end.

The Preposition is not an essential part of the Verb. It is omitted after the *Mood* auxiliaries and the Verbs *bid, dare, do, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, &c.* It is used, however, in the Passive Voice: as, He was told to go.

The Infinitive is really a Noun, which may be used either in the Nominative or in the Objective case; as, *To err* is human; I wish to read.

EXERCISES.

What does *Mood* show? Name the Moods. What Mood has now been given up? What is the meaning of *Potential*? How is the *Indicative* Mood used? What does the word *indicative* mean? Why is the *Subjunctive* Mood so called? How is it used? What is the meaning of *subjunctive*? What does it usually follow? Why is it sometimes called the *Conditional* Mood? When should the Indicative, when should the Subjunctive Mood be used? In what other case may the Subjunctive be used? When is the Conjunction omitted? What change is taking place in the use of the Subjunctive? How is the *Imperative* used? What is the meaning of *imperative*? What has it only? How may command also be expressed? How is the *Infinitive* used? Why is it so called? What is the *sign* of the Infinitive? In what cases is it omitted? What is the Infinitive really? How may it be used?

Name the Voices and Moods of the Verbs in the following sentences:—Come home quickly. Tell him if you see him. A letter from him was received yesterday. It is better to suffer than to do wrong. I saw him after he was struck down. Were he to come, I should tell him. Send away the coolies. I shall give them as much as I can. Stand at ease. Are you pleased with the present you have received? Whether the prisoner be innocent is uncertain. Though the jar was very strong, the servant broke it.

Make four sentences each with a Verb in the Indicative Mood.

Make four sentences each with a Verb in the Subjunctive Mood.

Make four sentences each with a Verb in the Imperative.

Make four sentences each with a Verb in the Infinitive.

GERUNDS AND PARTICIPLES.

The Gerundial Infinitive is used to express the purpose, the cause, or the condition of an action.

Old English had two forms of the Infinitive. 1. The Simple Infinitive;

as, *scriban*. 2. The Gerundial or Dative Infinitive; as, *to scriban*. The latter was the Infinitive inflected for the dative by the suffix *-an*, which was the position to. In later English the two Infinitives changes took place and the Gerund was prefixed to the Simple Infinitive. To what Conjugation does the Gerund belong? Hence we have only one to which Conjugation

do most Verbs belong? Explain the formation of *lord*. Why are some Verbs *Weak* which seem to be *Strong*? What Verbs are said to be *Regular* and *Irregular*? How are Weak Verbs sometimes divided? What have some Verbs?

Name ten *Strong* and ten *Weak* Verbs.

LIST OF STRONG VERBS.

Formerly the perfect participle of these Verbs always ended in *-n* or *-en*; in some this termination has been lost. Verbs to which *r* is prefixed have also weak forms.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide	abode	abode	Drink	drank	{ drunk, drunken
Arise	arose	arisen	Dive	dove	driven
<i>r</i> Awake	awoke	awoke	Eat	ate	eaten
Bear	bore	born	Fall	fell	fallen
(bring forth)			Fight	fought	fought
Bear	bore	borne	Find	found	found
(carry)			Fling	flung	flung
Beat	beat	beaten	Fly	flew	flown
Beget	begat	begotten	Forbear	forbore	forborne
Begin	began	begun	Forbid	forbade	forbidden
Behold	beheld	{ beheld (beholden)	Forget	forgot	forgotten
Bid	{ bade, bid	{ bidden, bid	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Bind	bound	bound	Freeze	froze	frozen
Bite	bit	bitten, bit	Get	got	got, gotten
Blown	blew	blown	Give	gave	given
Break	broke	broken	Go	went	gone
Chide	chid	{ chidden, chid	Grind	ground	ground
Choose	chose	chosen	Grow	grew	grown
Cleave ¹	{ clove, cleft	{ cloven, cleft	<i>r</i> Hang	hung	hung
Cling	clung	clung	Hide	hid	{ hidden, hid
Come	came	come	Hold	held	{ held, holden
Crow	crew	{ crown, crowed	Know	knew	known
<i>r</i> Dig	dug	dug	Lie	lay	lain
Do	did	done	Ride	rode	ridden
Draw	drew	drawn	Ring	rang	rung
			Rise	rose	risen
			Run	ran	run

¹ *Cleave*, to adhere, has *clave*, *cleaved*, *cleaved*.
² *clove*, *cleft*, *cloven*, *cleft*. *Cleave* is now obsolete

Cleave, to split, has *clove*,

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
See	saw	seen	Stand	stood	stood
Seethe	r sod	sodden	Steal	stole	stolen
Shake	shook	shaken	Stick	stuck	stuck
r Shave	shaved	shaven	Sting	stung	stung
r Shear	shore	shorn	Stink	stank	stunk
Shine	shone	shone	Stride	strode	stridden
Shoot	shot	shot	Strike	struck	struck
r Show	showed	shown	String	strung	strung
Shrunk	shrank	shrunk	Strive	strove	striven
Sing	sang	sung	Swear	swore	sworn
Sink	sank	{ sunk, sunken	r Swell	swelled	swollen
Sit	sat	sat	Swim	swam	swum
Slay	slew	slain	Swing	swung	swung
Slide	slid	{ slidden, slid	Take	took	taken
Sling	slung	slung	Tear	tore	torn
Slink	slunk	slunk	r Thrive	throve	thriven
r Sow	sowed	sown	Throw	threw	thrown
Smite	smote	smitten	Tread	trod	{ trodden, trod
Speak	spoke	spoken	Wake	r woke	waked
Spin	{ spun, span	} spun	Wear	wore	worn
Spit	spat	spat, spit	Weave	wove	woven
Spring	{ sprang, sprung	} sprung	Win	won	won
			Wind	wound	wound
			Wring	wrung	wrung
			Write	wrote	written

The foregoing list should be carefully committed to memory. The teacher should question the pupils on the Past Tenses and Past Participles of the Verbs, and the pupils should question one another.

LIST OF WEAK VERBS.

WEAK Verbs are divided into **Irregular** and **Regular** Weak Verbs.

The Irregular Weak are such Verbs as *tell, told, seek, sought.*

The Regular Weak are such as *love, loved, mend, mended.*

The Irregular Weak Verbs are nearly all monosyllabic and of purely English origin. The Regular Weak Verbs are of Latin or French origin. All new Verbs are placed in the Regular Weak Conjugation.

Irregular Weak Verbs are divided into two classes :—
 (1) Those which keep their *-ed*, *d*, or *t* in the Past Tense ; as, sleep, slept. (2) Those which have lost the *d* or *t* ; as, feed, fed.

The following changes should be noticed :—

(a) A sharp consonant follows a sharp and a flat a flat. (See page 7.) Sleep does not take *sleeped*, but *slept*.

(b) Some Verbs *shorten* their vowel ; as, *meet*, *met*.

(c) Some Verbs have different vowels in the present and past ; as, *tell*, *told* ; *buy*, *bought*. But it is the *present* which has changed—not the *past*.

(d) Some have dropped an internal letter. Thus, *made* = *maked* ; *had* = *haved*.

(e) Some have the present, past, and past participle alike ; as, cast, hit, let, &c.

The suffix *-d* (*-t*) is often dropped after *d*, *t*, *st*, *r*, and *it*.

The following Verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation, in addition to the large class which form their past tense and past participle by adding *-d* or *-ed*.

CLASS I.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bereave	bereft	bereft	Flee	fled	fled
Beseech	besought	besought	r Gild	gilt	gilt
Bleed	bled	bled	r Gird	girt	girt
Blend	blended	blent	Have	had	had
Breed	bred	bred	Hear	heard	heard
Bring	brought	brought	Hew	hewed	r hewn
r Build	built	built	Keep	kept	kept
r Burn	burnt	burnt	r Kneel	knelt	knelt
Buy	bought	bought	Lay	laid	laid
Catch	caught	caught	Lead	led	led
r Clothe	clad	clad	r Leap	leapt	leapt
Creep	crept	crept	r Learn	learnt	learnt
r Crow	crew	crowed	Leave	left	left
r Curse	curst	curst	Lend	lent	lent
r Dare	durst	dared	r Light	lit	lit
Deal	dealt	dealt	r Load	loaded	laden
r Dream	dreamt	dreamt	Lose	lost	lost
r Dwell	dwelt	dwelt	Make	made	made
Feed	fed	fed	Mean	meant	meant
Feel	felt	felt	Meet	met	met

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
r Melt	melted	molten	r Sow	sowed	sown
r Mow	mowed	mown	Speed	sped	sped
Rend	rent	rent	r Spell	spelt	spelt
r Rive	rived	riven	Spend	spent	spent
r Saw	sawed	sawn	r Spill	spilt	spilt
Say	said	said	r Strew	strewed	strewn
Seek	sought	sought	Sweep	swept	swept
Sell	sold	sold	r Swell	swelled	swollen
Send	sent	sent	Teach	taught	taught
Shave	shaved	shaven	Tell	told	told
Shoe	shod	shod	Think	thought	thought
r Show	showed	shown	Weep	wept	wept
Sleep	slept	slept	r Work	wrought	wrought
r Smell	smelt	smelt			

CLASS II.

Verbs of this Class have the three Parts alike.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bet	bet	bet	Read	read	read
Cast	cast	cast	Rid	rid	rid
Cost	cost	cost	Set	set	set
Cut	cut	cut	Shed	shed	shed
Hit	hit	hit	Shut	shut	shut
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Slit	slit	slit
r Knit	knit	knit	Split	split	split
Let	let	let	Spread	spread	spread
Put	put	put	Thrust	thrust	thrust

The above are probably Verbs of the Weak Conjugation, in which the *ed* is blended with the final consonant.

EXERCISES.

Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of the following Verbs:—

Teach, steal, drink, seek, weave, lay, thrust, shine, shoe, ring, shake, eat, lose, shoot, throw, tread, fall, speed, flee, drive, shrink, begin, sow, win.

Mention Verbs that change the root vowel in the past tense, but do not take *en* in the perfect participle.

Mention Verbs that form the past tense in *ed* and the perfect participle in *en*.

Mention Verbs that neither modify the root vowel nor add *en*.

CONJUGATION WITHOUT AUXILIARIES.

The following is the inflection of the Weak Verb *To love*, without the help of other Verbs:—

A distinction should be made between forms made by inflecting the Verb itself, and forms made by help of what are called AUXILIARY Verbs.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Love	Loved	Loyed

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I love	1. We love
2. Thou lovest	2. You love
3. He loves	3. They love

Past Tense.

1. I loved	1. We loved
2. Thou lovedst	2. You loved
3. He loved	3. They loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. Love thou	2. Love ye, or you
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INFINITIVE MOOD.

To love

GERUNDS.

Loving

To love

PARTICIPLES.

*Imperfect, Loving**Perfect, Loved*

The Strong Verb **To Write** is thus inflected :—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Write	Wrote	Written

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I write	1. We write
2. Thou writest	2. You write
3. He writes	3. They write

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I wrote		1. We wrote
2. Thou wrotest		2. You wrote
3. He wrote		3. They wrote

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------------|
| 2. Write thou | 2. Write ye, or you |
|---------------|---------------------|

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To write.

GERUNDS.

Writing

To write

PARTICIPLES.

*Imperfect, Writing**Perfect, Written*

The English Verb has only a small number of inflections. *Write* has seven forms: *write, writest, writes, writing, written, wrote, wrotest*. Regular Verbs have only six forms: *love, lovest, loves, loved, lovedst, loving*.

The above are, strictly speaking, the only Conjugations of the English Verb: but the Moods and Tenses of Latin Verbs are represented by the aid of other Verbs.

EXERCISES.

Inflect the Verb *To love* without the help of other Verbs. Inflect the Verb *To write*. How many inflections has the Strong Verb *Write*? Name them. How many inflections have Weak Verbs? How are the Moods and Tenses of Latin Verbs represented in English? Inflect similarly the Verbs *hate, sing, command, praise, hear, order, feel, attend, move*.

*Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following sentences:—*Let us go. Good scholars try to learn. My father hopes to come to-morrow. Rama went to school. The nightingale sings sweetly. The moon rose at eight o'clock. Govind threw the ball. The coolie cut his hand. The owl flies at night.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

Only the **Present** and **Past** Tenses are expressed by the Verb itself. Additional Tenses are formed by the help of other Verbs, called **Auxiliaries**, viz.: *Be, Have, Shall, and Will*.

Auxiliary¹ means helping. Such Verbs are frequently used, and are of great importance.

Do, May, and Can would be ranked as auxiliaries, if the *Emphatic* and *Potential* Moods were admitted into the Conjugation of the Verb.

Some of the Auxiliaries are also used as principal Verbs.

To Be.

Present Tense.
Am.

Past Tense.
Was.

Perfect Participle.
Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>	
1. <i>Person</i> I	am	1. <i>Person</i> We	are	
2. " Thou	art	2. " You	are	
3. " He, she or it, is		3. " They	are	

PAST TENSE.

1. I	was	1. We	were
2. Thou	wast	2. You	were
3. He	was	3. They	were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. If I	be	1. If we	be
2. If thou	be	2. If you	be
3. If he	be	3. If they	be

PAST TENSE.

1. If I	were	1. If we	were
2. If thou	wert	2. If you	were
3. If he	were	3. If they	were

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
2. Be, or be thou		2. Be, or be ye, or you	

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To be

GERUNDS.

Being To be

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being *Perfect, Been*

The verb to be is made up of three different roots, all denoting existence; *am* = Sanskrit *asmī*, Latin *sum*; *was* = Sanskrit *vas*, to dwell; *be* = Sanskrit *bhū*, to exist, Latin *fiat*, I have been.

¹ *Aurilum*, help.

A-m (= *ar-m* = *as-m*) contains the root *as*, and *m* the ending of the first person, as in *me*.

Ar-t (= *as-t*) has the old *-t* of the second person.

Is (= *as* = *as-th*) has lost its suffix *-th*.

Are (= *ase*) represents the old Northern *ar-on*. It has altogether replaced the Old English *and*.

Was is the past tense of *wesan*, to *be*, cognate with the Sanskrit *vas*, to dwell.

Wast is not found in the Oldest English, which was *wer-e*. *Wast* is not older than the fourteenth century. It has the old suffix *-t* of the second personal pronoun.

Were = *ues-en*, Old English, *uar-en*.

As late as Milton's time the verb *be* was thus conjugated in the present tense¹ —

I be	We be
Thou beest	Ye be
He be	They be

Inflections with the Auxiliary "To be." The Passive Voice is formed by joining the Perfect Participle of a Verb to the Verb "be" throughout; as, He *is* loved, *to be* loved, *being* loved.

The **Progressive** form of the Active Voice is formed by similarly joining the Present Participle; as, I *am* loving.

Be is also used as a principal Verb; as, Death *is* the wages of sin.

Be with the Gerund expresses *intention*; as, I *am to write*.

To Have.

Present Tense.

Have.

Past Tense.

Had.

Perfect Participle.

Had.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I have
2. Thou hast
3. He has (hath)

Plural.

1. We have
2. You have
3. They have

Past Tense.

1. I had
2. Thou hadst
3. He had

1. We had
2. You had
3. They had

IMPERATIVES.

Have (thou) Have (ye, you)

INFINITIVE.

To have.

PARTICIPLES.

Having Had

The primary meaning of *have* is *possession*. In Old English *have*, *had*, *had*, were *habbe*, *hæfde*, *hæfed*. In later times the past tense was *hedde*, *hædde*. As already mentioned, *had* is contracted from *have-did*.

¹ Abridged from Dr. Morris,

Inflections with the Auxiliary "To Have" Followed by the Perfect Participle of another Verb, 'have' forms the Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses, as, I *have* written, I *had* written.

Have is also used as a principal Verb, as, Every duty *has* its reward

With the Gerund, it expresses *obligation* as, I *have* to go.

LXCI CISES

What Tenses only are expressed by the Verb itself? How are the other Tenses formed? What are these Verbs called? What is the meaning of *Auxiliary*? Name the Auxiliary Verbs. What other Verbs might be classed as auxiliary? How are some of the Auxiliary Verbs also used? Inflect the Verb *to be*. Of what three roots is the Verb *to be* made up? Explain the formation of the different parts of the Verb. How was the Present Tense of *to be* declined as late as Milton's time? What inflections are formed by means of *to be*? Inflect the Verb *to have*. What is the primary meaning of *have*? What were the old English forms? What inflections are formed by means of the Verb *to have*? What are its other uses?

Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs—You have If they be. Thou hast Be ye. Whose book is this Thou hadst a rupee being We were there If we were Have thou He ought to have it He had a ball. I have another. Ye be idle Thou beest

Let the pupils question each other in naming parts of the Auxiliary Verbs be and have, and in telling parts which are mentioned.

AUXILIARY VERBS—continued

Shall and Will have only the Present and Past Tenses of the Indicative Mood.

Shall.

Present Tense

Singular	
1 I	shall
2 Thou	shalt
3 He	shall

Plural	
1 We	shall
2 Ye, or you	shall
3 They	shall

Past Tense

1 I	should
2 Thou	shouldst
3 He	should

1 We	should
2 Ye, or you	should
3 They	should

Will

Present Tense.

Singular.

1 I	will
2 Thou	wilt
3 He	will

Plural.

1 We	will
2 Ye, or you	will
3 They	will

Past Tense.

1 I	would
2 Thou	wouldst
3 He	would

1 We	would
2 Ye, or you	would
3 They	would

In Middle English *will* had a form *wol* which still survives in *cont=will* *not*. In Old English the negative *n* prefixed to *will* produced *wille=will* *not*. The Transitive Verb *will* is in the *will* my death comes from the Old English *willian* to desire.

Inflections with Shall and Will—*Shall* and *Will* are employed to form the Future tenses of Verbs as, I *shall* go, he *will* go.

Mistakes in the use of *SHALL* and *WILL* are very common. The following remarks should be carefully studied.

One of the oldest meanings of *shall* is *owe*. From the notion of debt arose the idea of obligation. Hence *shall* often signifies *ought, must*, what one *ought* to do. *Will* originally means *wish, or desire*, what a person is *willing* to do.

Shall retains its primary meaning in the Second and Third Persons Singular and Plural; as, Thou *shalt* not kill; He *shall* surely die. Besides commanding and threatening, it also *promises*, as, He *shall* be blessed.

Shall is only an auxiliary of the future in the first person, and in interrogative sentences in the second person, as, *Shall* you go? It is an independent Verb in the second and third persons.

Shall, in the First Person Singular and Plural, simply states that something will happen; as, I *shall* go home. It does not denote any *wish* on the part of the speaker. On the other hand, *will* in the First Person implies that the action is dependent upon the will of the speaker. I *will* go home, denotes that it is my own *wish* to go.

Will in the Second and Third Persons usually means simple futurity, without any reference to the wish of the agent. He *will* be punished, simply states what will happen.

Further directions about the use of *shall* and *will* are given under Syntax.

EXERCISES.

What are the only parts of *shall* and *will*? Inflect *shall*. Inflect *will*. What inflections of the Verb are formed with *shall* and *will*? What are the primary or first meanings of *shall* and *will*?

In what person does *shall* retain its primary meaning? Give examples. Besides commanding and threatening, what does *shall* also do? What does *shall* mean in the First Person, Singular and Plural? What does it not imply? What does *will* in the First Person imply? What is the meaning of "I *will* do it?" What does *will* usually mean in the Second and Third Persons? What does "He *will* be punished" mean?

Explain the force of shall and will in the following sentences:—
Thou shalt not kill. I shall never forget your kindness. I shall attend to your request. I will let you know. Will you do it? Shall I do it? I shall do it. I will do it. The lion shall lie down with the lamb. I will leave next week. The books shall be opened. They will be caught. We shall soon be there.

COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB TO LOVE, WITH AUXILIARIES.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind. Love. *Past,* Loved. *Perf. Part.* Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite.*

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	love	1. We love
2. Thou	lovest	2. You love
3. He loves, or loveth		3. They love

PRESENT *Imperfect, or Progressive.*

1. I am	loving	1. We are loving
2. Thou art	loving	2. You are loving
3. He is	loving	3. They are loving

PRESENT *Perfect.*

1. I	have loved	1. We have loved
2. Thou	hast loved	2. You have loved
3. He has, or hath	loved	3. They have loved

PRESENT *Perfect Continuous.*¹

1. I have been	loving	1. We have been loving
2. Thou hast been	loving	2. You have been loving
3. He has been	loving	3. They have been loving

¹ The *Perfect Continuous* expresses an action going on up to the present time.

PAST Indefinite.

- Singular.*
 1. I loved
 2. Thou lovedst
 3. He loved

- Plural.*
 1. We loved
 2. You loved
 3. They loved

PAST Imperfect, or Progressive.

1. I was loving
 2. Thou wast loving
 3. He was loving

1. We were loving
 2. You were loving
 3. They were loving

PAST Perfect

1. I had loved
 2. Thou hadst loved
 3. He had loved

1. We had loved
 2. You had loved
 3. They had loved

PAST Perfect Continuous.

1. I had been loving
 2. Thou hadst been loving
 3. He had been loving

1. We had been loving
 2. You had been loving
 3. They had been loving

FUTURE Indefinite.

1. I shall love
 2. Thou wilt love
 3. He will love

1. We shall love
 2. You will love
 3. They will love

FUTURE Imperfect.

1. I shall be loving
 2. Thou wilt be loving
 3. He will be loving

1. We shall be loving
 2. You will be loving
 3. They will be loving

FUTURE Perfect.

1. I shall have loved
 2. Thou wilt have loved
 3. He will have loved

1. We shall have loved
 2. You will have loved
 3. They will have loved

FUTURE Perfect Continuous.

1. I shall have been loving
 2. Thou wilt have been loving
 3. He will have been loving

1. We shall have been loving
 2. You will have been loving
 3. They will have been loving

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT Indefinite.

1. If I love
 2. If thou love
 3. If he love

1. If we love
 2. If you love
 3. If they love

PRESENT *Imperfect.**Singular.*

1. If I be loving
2. If thou be loving
3. If he be loving

Plural.

1. If we be loving
2. If you be loving
3. If they be loving

This is the old form of the Subjunctive. If I *am* loving is now generally used.

PRESENT *Perfect.*

1. If I have loved
2. If thou have loved
3. If he have loved

1. If we have loved
2. If you have loved
3. If they have loved

PRESENT *Perfect Continuous.*

1. If I have been loving
2. If thou have been loving
3. If he have been loving

1. If we have been loving
2. If you have been loving
3. If they have been loving

PAST *Indefinite.*

1. If I loved
2. If thou lovedst
3. If he loved

1. If we loved
2. If you loved
3. If they loved

PAST *Imperfect.*

1. If I were loving
2. If thou wert loving
3. If he were loving

1. If we were loving
2. If you were loving
3. If they were loving

PAST *Perfect.*

1. If I had loved
2. If thou hadst loved
3. If he had loved

1. If we had loved
2. If you had loved
3. If they had loved

PAST *Perfect Continuous.*

1. If I had been loving
2. If thou hadst been loving
3. If he had been loving

1. If we had been loving
2. If you had been loving
3. If they had been loving

FUTURE *Indefinite.*

1. If I should love
2. If thou wouldst love
3. If he would love

1. If we should love
2. If you would love
3. If they would love

FUTURE *Imperfect.*

1. If I should be loving
2. If thou wouldst be loving
3. If he would be loving

1. If we should be loving
2. If you would be loving
3. If they would be loving

FUTURE *Perfect*.*Singular.*

1. If I should have loved
2. If thou wouldst have loved
3. If he would have loved

Plural.

1. If we should have loved
2. If you would have loved
3. If they would have loved

FUTURE *Perfect Continuous*.

1. If I should have been loving
2. If thou wouldst have been loving
3. If he would have been loving
1. If we should have been loving
2. If you would have been loving
3. If they would have been loving

IMPERATIVE MOOD.¹

2. Love, or love thou
2. Love, or love ye, or you

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Indefinite, To love *Perfect*, To have loved
Imperfect, To be loving *Perfect Continuous*, To have been loving

GERUNDS.

Nom. and Obj., Loving *Dative*, To love

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving *Perfect*, Loved² *Compound Perfect*, Having loved
Perfect Continuous, Having been loving.

EXERCISES.

Give the first person singular and plural of all the tenses of the Verb *To love*. Let the pupils question each other on the parts of the Verb *To love*.

Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following:—I was going home. A son should love and honour his parents. I have been thinking about what you said. We are going to Calcutta. Having loved them from the beginning, he loved them to the end. We shall have lived there three years. He has bought the house. Love me little, love me long. He went there to shoot a tiger. Reading and writing are both very useful. If I have done wrong, I am very sorry. To be loving to all is our duty. If he come, I will pay him. To forgive is divine. I was going home when he called me.

Conjugate:—Lose, forget, vex, dance, play, write, carry, read, fight, command, beat.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The Passive Voice is formed by adding the Perfect

¹ Some Grammarians add a Future Tense, Thou shalt love, You shall love.

² Some Grammarians omit this Participle; some call it the *Past* Participle; others call it the *Passive* Participle.

Participle of a *Transitive* Verb after the Verb *To be* in all the Moods and Tenses; thus:—

TO BE LOVED.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind., *Am loved* Past, *Was loved*

Perfect Part., *Been loved*

The Passive Voice is much more frequently used in English than in the Indian vernaculars.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite*.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved	1. We are loved
2. Thou art loved	2. You are loved
3. He is loved	3. They are loved

PRESENT *Imperfect*.

1. I am being loved	1. We are being loved
2. Thou art being loved	2. You are being loved
3. He is being loved	3. They are being loved

PRESENT *Perfect*.

1. I have been loved	1. We have been loved
2. Thou hast been loved	2. You have been loved
3. He has been loved	3. They have been loved

PAST *Indefinite*.

1. I was loved	1. We were loved
2. Thou wast loved	2. You were loved
3. He was loved	3. They were loved

PAST *Imperfect*.

1. I was being loved	1. We were being loved
2. Thou wast being loved	2. You were being loved
3. He was being loved	3. They were being loved

PAST *Perfect*.

1. I had been loved	1. We had been loved
2. Thou hadst been loved	2. You had been loved
3. He had been loved	3. They had been loved

FUTURE *Indefinite*.

1. I shall be loved	1. We shall be loved
2. Thou wilt be loved	2. You will be loved
3. He will be loved	3. They will be loved

FUTURE *Perfect*.¹*Singular.*

1. I shall have been loved
2. Thou wilt have been loved
3. He will have been loved

Plural.

1. We shall have been loved
2. You will have been loved
3. They will have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite*.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I be loved | 1. If we be loved |
| 2. If thou be loved | 2. If you be loved |
| 3. If he be loved | 3. If they be loved |

PRESENT *Perfect*.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. If I have been loved | 1. If we have been loved |
| 2. If thou have been loved | 2. If you have been loved |
| 3. If he have been loved | 3. If they have been loved |

PAST *Indefinite*.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I were loved | 1. If we were loved |
| 2. If thou wert loved | 2. If you were loved |
| 3. If he were loved | 3. If they were loved |

PAST *Imperfect*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. If I were being loved | 1. If we were being loved |
| 2. If thou wert being loved | 2. If you were being loved |
| 3. If he were being loved | 3. If they were being loved |

PAST *Perfect*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I had been loved | 1. If we had been loved |
| 2. If thou hadst been loved | 2. If you had been loved |
| 3. If he had been loved | 3. If they had been loved |

FUTURE *Indefinite*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I should be loved | 1. If we should be loved |
| 2. If thou wouldst be loved | 2. If you would be loved |
| 3. If he would be loved | 3. If they would be loved |

FUTURE *Perfect*.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. If I should have been loved | 1. If we should have been loved |
| 2. If thou wouldst have been loved | 2. If you would have been loved |
| 3. If he would have been loved | 3. If they would have been loved |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 2. Be thou loved | 2. Be ye or you loved |
|------------------|-----------------------|

¹ The Progressive Form is rarely used in the Passive. The Past Perfect Continuous, the Future Imperfect, and the Future Perfect Continuous are wanting.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be loved *Perfect*, To have been loved

GERUNDS.

Nom. and *Obj.*, Being loved *Dative*, To be loved

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being loved *Perfect*, Been loved
Compound Perfect, Having been loved

EXERCISES.

How is the Passive Voice formed and inflected? Inflect the Verb *To be loved*. Name the second persons singular and plural of each of the tenses. Let the pupils question each other in naming parts of the Verb.

Conjugate the following Verbs in the Passive Voice:—Miss, obtain, show, fear, strike, lose, see, chase, blame.

Tell the Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following sentences:

Loving our friends is easy. We have sold the house. Who found Rama's book? We learn to write letters. Govind being in great trouble, was weeping. Learning to paint is pleasant. We have just met him. He teaches writing. The child has been named John. That will do. I may see Krishna this evening; I will give him your message if I do. I shall be beaten if I try. You will be beaten if you do not try. It is I who am speaking. If I were told, I should do it. To be loved we must love. Had any thing happened, you would have been informed. I shall be twelve years old next month.

Make two sentences, each containing a Verb in the Present Perfect Continuous Tense, Indicative Mood, Active Voice.

Make two sentences, each containing a Verb in the Future Imperfect Tense, Indicative Mood, Active Voice.

Make two sentences, each containing a Verb in the Past Imperfect Tense, Indicative Mood, Passive Voice.

Make two sentences, each containing a Verb in the Past Imperfect Tense, Subjunctive Mood, Passive Voice. ↑

RULES FOR THE INFLECTIONS OF THE TENSES.

1. Verbs ending in *ss*, *sh*, *ch*, *x*, or *o*, form the third person singular of the Present of the Indicative by adding *es*; as (dress) he *dresses*; (march) he *marches*; (go) he *goes*, &c.

2. Verbs ending in *y* change *y* into *i*, before the terminations *est*, *es*, *eth*, or *ed*, but not before *ing*; as (try),

triest, tries, tried, trying; but **y** with a vowel before it is not changed into **i**; as (*pray*), *prayest, prays* or *prayeth, prayed, praying*, &c.

3. Verbs accented on the last syllable, and Verbs of one syllable ending in a single consonant after a single vowel, double the final consonant before the terminations *eth, est, ed, ing, &c.*, but never before **s**; as (*cut*), *cutteth, cuttest, cutting, cuts*; (*forget*), *forgettest, forgetting, &c.*; (*repeat*), *repeatest, repeating, &c.*

Benefit and other words not accented on the last syllable do not double the final consonant.

EXERCISES.

How is the third person Singular Indicative formed? When is **y** changed into **i** in the inflections of Verbs? When is the final consonant doubled before *est, &c.*?

Write the second and third persons Singular of:—Miss, pay, win, fish, catch, fly, go, begin, flash, commit, match, rebel, cry, betray.

ADDITIONAL VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES.

Some Verbs in frequent use are thus conjugated:—

To Do.

Present Tense.
Do.

Past Tense.
Did.

Perfect Participle.
Done.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I do
2. Thou doest or doth
3. He does, doeth or doth

Plural.

1. We do
2. You do
3. They do

Past Tense.

1. I did
2. Thou didst
3. He did

1. We did
2. You did
3. They did

IMPERATIVE, Do.

INFINITIVE, To do.

PARTICIPLE.

Imperfect, Doing.

Perfect, Done.

Do is used both as a Principal and as an Auxiliary; but the old forms *doest, doeth* are limited to the former; as, *If thou doest well; Whatsoever he doeth shall prosper.*

Do can be used as a substitute for other Verbs except *be*; as,

He speaks as well as you *do* (speak). Hence it has been called the *pro-verb*; corresponding to the pronoun.

Other uses of *do* will be given under another head.

In "How do you *do*?" the first *do* is connected with the Sanskrit *dhd*, to put, to make; the second is derived from a different root, the Old English *dugan*, to avail. "This will *do*," means, This will *answer the purpose*.

Go has **went** in the Past Tense, and **Gone** in the Participle.

The present participle, employed as an auxiliary, expresses an *intention* about to be carried out; as, *I am going* to write. Nearly the same meaning is expressed by *about*; as, *I am about* to write.

The following Verbs are more or less defective, or wanting in some parts:—

May.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may		1. We may
2. Thou mayest		2. You may
3. He may		3. They may
	<i>Past Tense.</i>	
1. I might		1. We might
2. Thou mightest		2. You might
3. He might		3. They might

May expresses: (1) *Permission*; as, *May I do it?* (2) *Possibility*; as, *He may come*; *may-be*=perhaps. (3) *A wish*. In this case it is placed before its subject; as, *May you prosper!*

When the speaker has a wish of his own he uses *may*; when such is not the case, he uses *shall*. *May I do it?* *Shall I do it?*

Might expresses: (1) *Past permission repeated in the present*; as, *He told me that I might have it*. (2) *Doubt in the present*; as, *I think he might give it*.

The *y* in *may* represents an older *g*. It is from the old root *mag*, to grow, to increase, which exists in the Old English *magen*, might. It is allied to much, the Latin *magnus*, and the Sanskrit *mahd*.

Can.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I can		1. We can
2. Thou canst		2. You can
3. He can		3. They can

Singular.

1. I could
2. Thou couldst
3. He could

*Past Tense.**Plural.*

1. We could
2. You could
3. They could

Can originally meant *know*. *I can do it* = *I know (how) to do it*. **Could**, in Old English *cythe*, was erroneously assimilated in spelling to *should* and *could* by adding *l*. **Con**, to study, is from the same root. *Cunning* (knowing) is the old present participle of *can*. *Uncouth* (unknown, hence strange, awkward) is its past participle *cuth*, with un- prefixed. The corresponding Sanskrit root is *jñā*, contracted from *janā*.

Can denotes *power*; as, *I can do it*. It should not be used for *may*. *Can I come?* should be, *May I come?* The difference between them somewhat resembles that between *shall* and *will*. **Could** denotes *past power*; as, *I could not do it*.

May and **can** were used to form the so-called **Potential Mood**.

Must has no change of form.

It denotes: (1) *Compulsion from without*; as, *He must work*. (2) *Determination*; as, *I must have it*. (3) *Certainty*; as, *It must be so*.

It is used only in the Present Indicative. To express past time, the Verb which follows it must be put in past time. *Present*, *I must see*; *Past*, *I must have seen*.

Must is from the Old English Verb *mot*, past, *moste*, to be able, to be obliged.

Ought is the past tense of the Verb *owe*, to have. It is used as a present to express *duty*. When past time is expressed, *ought* is joined to a perfect infinitive; as, *I ought to have done it*.

Ought and **should** both express obligation; but *ought* is the stronger. *Ought* denotes *duty*; *should* an obligation of *propriety*. We *ought* to tell the truth; we *should* be neat and clean. *To* is used after *ought*, but not after *should*.

Owe, to be in debt, is a regular Weak Verb, with *owed* in past tense and participle.

Wit is obsolete except in the phrase *to-wit*, namely. The present participle *witting*, used by Shakespeare, is found in *unwittingly*. The present indicative *wit* and the past *wist*, are common in older English.

Wit, to know, and the Latin *video*, to see, are allied to the Sanskrit *vid*, to know, from which *veda* comes.

Quoth means *said*. It is used only in the first and third persons in the past tense, and precedes its subject; as, *quoth he*.

He speaks as well as you *do* (speak). Hence it has been called the *pro-verb*, corresponding to the pronoun.

Other uses of *do* will be given under another head.

In "*How do you do*?" the first *do* is connected with the Sanskrit *dhd*, to put, to make; the second is derived from a different root, the Old English *dugan*, to avail. "*This will do*," means, *This will answer the purpose*.

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<i>Past Tense.</i>		
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Can.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I can		1. We can
2. Thou canst		2. You can
3. He can		3. They can

The INTERROGATIVE Form is used in asking questions. It consists in placing the nominative between the auxiliary and the Verb; thus, *Shall I go?*

If there is no auxiliary, *do* or *did* is usually placed before the nominative; thus, *Do I write well? Did you hear him?*

An Interrogative sentence may also be formed by placing the Verb before its subject; as, *Lovest thou me? Said he not so?* This old form is now seldom used, except in poetry, and with the Verb *To be*; as, *Is he here?*

Indian students are very apt to make mistakes in asking questions. In Urdu, &c., the order of an Interrogative does not, as a rule, differ from that of an affirmative sentence. The same word in the same order may mean, *They are able to run*, or, *Are they able to run?* Great attention should therefore be paid to the above directions.

A polite request may be made in the Interrogative form: as, "Will you have the goodness to do so and so?" "You will have the goodness to do so and so," denotes an order.

The NEGATIVE Form is used in denying. It requires *not* or some other negative.

If there is an *auxiliary*, *not* is inserted *after* it; as, *We will not get it.*

If there is no auxiliary, *do* is usually put before *not*; as, *I do not wish to go.* *Not* is sometimes simply placed after the Verb; as, *He spoke not a word.* *Not* is placed *before* the infinitive; as, *I told him not to come.*

Do is *not emphatic* when used in Interrogative and Negative sentences.

In the languages of Southern India, Verbs have a negative form. In English, Urdu, &c., a separate word must be used.

Two Negatives destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative; as, *He is not only not idle, but industrious!*

EXERCISES.

Why is the *Emphatic* Form used? How is it formed? Conjugate the Verb *do*. To what tenses is the *Emphatic* Form confined? How is the *Interrogative* Form used? How is it formed? If there is no auxiliary, what is usually placed before the nominative? How is an Interrogative sentence sometimes formed in poetry? Why are Indian students apt to make mistakes in asking questions?

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all

in English? How may a polite request be made? How is the Negative Form used? What does it require? What rules are given for the position of the Negative? When is *do not* Emphatic? What form have some Verbs in South India? To what are two negatives equal?

Put the following sentences into the Emphatic Form.—I dislike tobacco. Tell them. Ask the teacher. The two men ran away. Come with me to school. The snake bit the dog. The lion roared.

Put the following sentences into the Interrogative Form.—My father paid my fees. He understands the question. You have received my letter. Rama has finished his exercise. Asia is a continent. The king had three sons. I heard him. He goes home at sunset.

Correct the following errors.—Why you come? What they are doing? When the battle of Plassey was fought? To whom you will give this book? You were absent yesterday? Why you told my father? Why you tell lies? How the carpenter does his work? The teacher has come or not? Why you did come? How then you come here?

Put the following sentences into the Negative Form.—I am sick to-day. He is an idle boy. Are you afraid? He has written his exercise. This looks well. Is it right to do wrong? You are successful. He has failed. I found him in the garden. Is he a just man?

Give three examples each of Emphatic, Interrogative, and Negative Forms, also two examples of double Negatives.

CAUSATIVE VERBS, ETC.

CAUSATIVE Verbs are those which mean to *cause* or *make*. Only a few English Verbs have a causal form; as, *rise*, causal, *raise*; *fall*, *fell*, *sit*, *set*, *see*, *shew*, *lie*, *lay*, &c.; as, The tree *falls*; He *felled* the tree.

CAUSATIVE Verbs are also formed by the suffixes *-en* and *-fy*; as, *length-en*, *fright-en*, *sweet-en*; *terri-fy*, *fructi-fy*. The suffixes both mean to *make*.

Some Verbs take a causal sense without any change of form; as, Water *boils*; He *boils* the water; Govind *ran*; The doctor *ran* a needle into the boil.

Intransitive Verbs become transitive when used in a causal sense.

The causal sense may also be expressed by other words; as, I *made* him do it.

Sanskrit and the Indian Vernaculars have causal forms. In Sanskrit *sita*, I sit, has, *sīd-ayā-mi*, I set. *Aya* is an extension of the root *ī*, to go. In Hindi *uthnī*, to rise, has, *uthāna*, to raise, and *uthāna*, to cause to raise. In Old English, Verbs had a causal form, but the suffix has been lost. It was originally *aya*.

The name **FACTITIVE**¹ is given to some Transitive Verbs which take *one* object only, but require some word or phrase to be added to the object to make the sense complete; as, The soldiers made him emperor. *Him* is the object; *emperor* is added to complete the sense. The addition is called the *Complement*. It may be a noun, an adjective, a participle, a phrase, &c.; as, He set him *free*, They forced him *to go*.

Some Intransitive Verbs take objects after them of a similar meaning; as, He *fought* a good *fight*. Such objects are said to be *Cognate*,² meaning *born together*, or in the Cognate Accusative or Objective.

IMPERSONAL Verbs are used in the third person singular; as, it *rains*, it *thunders*. In *methinks*, it is omitted and the pronoun in the objective is placed before the Verb. The meaning is, It appears to me.

Such Verbs are also called *Unipersonal* or *Monopersonal*.

PARSING OF VERBS.

The following is the order to be observed:—1. *Conjugation* (Strong, Weak); 2. *Kind* (Transitive, Intransitive); 3. *Voice*; 4. *Mood*; 5. *Tense*; 6. *Person*; 7. *Number*; 8. *Syntac.*

EXERCISES.

What are *Causative* Verbs? Give examples of English Verbs with a Causal form? By what suffixes are Causal Verbs formed? What do *-fy* and *-en* mean? Give examples of Verbs which take a causal sense without change of form? What change takes place in Intransitive Verbs used in a causal sense? How may the causal sense also be expressed? Give examples of causal forms in Sanskrit and Hindi. What causative suffix have English Verbs lost? What are *Factitive* Verbs? What is the meaning of *factitive*? What is the addition called? What may it be? What do some Intransitive Verbs take after them? What are such objects said to be? What is the meaning of *Cognate*? In what case are Cognate objects? What are *Impersonal* Verbs? How does *methinks* differ

¹ Tending to make or cause, *faciō* to make

² *Cognatus*, born together.

from them? What is the meaning of *methinks*? What are such Verbs also called? In what order are Verbs parsed?

Parse the Verbs in the following sentences:—The judge made the prisoner confess his crime. Tell him to sweeten the water. The farmer grows rice in his fields. The soldier's opponent struck a deadly blow. Let the gardener set the plants this morning. I ran as fast as I could. The river was running very fast. We shall have been deceived, if such is the case. The letters had been sent before your message was received. We have been travelling all night. How has this mischief been caused? How gladly would I have complied with your request! If he had said so, I should have believed him. If you would lend me your dictionary, I should be much obliged to you. The officer fell while leading his troops. We arrived there first by taking a shorter road. By using false pretences he gained his end, but he suffered for it afterwards.

THE ADVERB.

An **ADVERB** is a word which qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, Walk *quickly*; It is *too large*; He studies *very diligently*.

The Adverb is to the Verb what the Adjective is to the Noun.

In some cases an Adverb seems to qualify a Preposition; as, A result *far beyond* his hopes.

Adverbs sometimes qualify sentences or phrases,¹ as, *Unfortunately*, he was not at home.

In the phrase The *then* king, the word *reigning* may be understood.

In Old English many Adverbs were formed from Adjectives by means of the suffix -*y*. The loss of the suffix reduced the Adverb to the same form as the Adjective, thus, *fair* became *fair*, and, *fast*, *fast*. In the sixteenth century Adjectives were often used as Adverbs, thus, *foolish bold*, *grievous sick*.

Adverbs may be divided into two classes—*Simple* and *Relative or Conjunctive*.²

Simple Adverbs merely qualify words; as, *now*, *soon*, *quickly*.

Most Adverbs belong to this class.

Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs both qualify words and connect sentences; as, He did it *when* all had come.

¹ Parts of sentences. *phrases*, speech. ² Serving to join, *con*, together, *juncto*, to join.

When not only qualifies the Verb *did*, but joins the two sentences. A *Conjunctive Adverb* should be distinguished from a *Conjunction*. The latter simply *connects*; it does not *qualify*. They are called *Relative* or *Conjunctive* because they have partly the properties of Relative Pronouns and Conjunctions.

Adverbs may be divided into different classes according to their signification:—

1. Adverbs of **Quality**; as, well, ill. Most Adverbs belong to this class.

2. Adverbs of **Time**; as,

Afterwards, again, too, already, always, awhile, before, by-and-by, daily, early, ever, hereafter, hourly, immediately, lately, never, now, often, once, presently, seldom, since, sometimes, soon, then, to-day, to-morrow, until, when, while, whilst, whilom, yesterday.

3. Adverbs of **Place**; as,

Above, afar, aloof, apart, around, aside, asunder, away, backwards, before, behind, below, down, downwards, elsewhere, everywhere, far, first, forth, forward, hence, inward, off, onward, out, outwards, secondly, sideways, upwards, where, within yonder.

4. Adverbs of **Degree** or **Quantity**; as,

Almost, also, altogether, enough, especially, exceedingly, hardly, how, little, less, least, much, more, most, nearly, quite, rather, scarcely, sufficiently, too, very, wholly.

5. **Numeral** Adverbs; as,

Once, twice, firstly, often, frequently, singly, two by two, &c.

6. Adverbs of **Cause** and **Effect**; as,

Accordingly, doubtless, hence, likewise, still, thence, therefore, wherefore, why.

7. **Relative** or **Conjunctive** Adverbs; as,

When, while, where, whence, why, how, as, then, &c.

8. **Interrogative** Adverbs.

When Relative Adverbs are used to ask questions, they are called **Interrogative** Adverbs.

Other subdivisions have been proposed; as, Adverbs of **Belief** and **Disbelief**; as, yes, no, surely, perhaps, indeed, &c. Adverbs of **Comparison**; as, so-as, than, &c.

The compounds of *here*, *there*, *where*, *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, *hence*, *how*, *thence*, and *when*, are all Adverbs.

EXERCISES.

What is an *Adverb*? In what do Adjectives and Adverbs agree and differ? What do Adverbs sometimes qualify? How is the phrase, "The *then* king" explained? What suffix had many Adjectives in Old English? When this was lost, what were they 'like in form? Into what two main classes may Adverbs be divided? What are *Simple* Adverbs? What are *Relative* and *Conjunctive* Adverbs? Why are they so called? Into what classes may Adverbs be subdivided? Give examples of each. What other subdivisions of Adverbs have been proposed?

Classify the following Adverbs — Aheady, forward, enough, when, almost, there, while, presently, seldom, sideways, nearly, often, why, hither, behind, asunder, hereafter, then, accordingly, now, whilst, low, wherefore, sometimes.

ADVERBS—continued.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS. — Many Adverbs admit of Comparisons 'like Adjectives. The numerous class ending in *ly* are compared by placing *more* and *most* before them; as, *cautiously*, *more cautiously*, *most cautiously*.

The older prose writers often suffixed *-er* and *-est* to such Adverbs; as, *stronglier*, *highliest*. This is still sometimes done by poets. Tennyson has *deeper*, *darklier*.

Adverbs, the same in form as corresponding Adjectives, are compared in the same way; as, *hard*, *harder*, *hardest*; *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

A few are compared irregularly:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Ill, badly	worse	worst
Well	better	best
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Far	farther	farthest
(Forth)	further	furthest
Nigh, near	nearer	next
Late	later	latest, last
(Rathe, adj.)	rather	

Rathe, early, is now little used.

The manner in which the above are used shows whether they are Adverbs or Adjectives.

ADVERBIAL PHRASES.—Two or more words having the force of an Adverb form an **Adverbial Phrase**; as, *at last, by and by, now and then, &c.*

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.—Nearly all Adverbs come from other words.

1. Most Adverbs are formed from Adjectives by adding *ly*; as *wise, wisely; useful, usefully*.

Ly is shortened from *like*. Adverbs of this class are mostly adverbs of quality.

Adjectives ending in *y* not preceded by a vowel, change *y* into *i* before *ly*; as, *pretty, prettily*.

Adjectives ending in *le* simply change the *e* into *y*; as, *singl^e, singly*.

2. Some Adverbs are formed from Nouns and Adjectives with a Preposition prefixed; as, *afoot* (on foot), *ashore* (on shore), *across, aside, betimes, besides, to-day, &c.* Such are sometimes called *Prepositional Adverbs*.

3. Some are derived from Prepositions; as, *upwards, downwards, within*.

4. Some are derived from the Pronouns *who, the* (now represented by *they* and *that*), *he*.

PRONOUN.	PLACE.	MOTION TO.	MOTION FROM.	TIME.	MANNER.	CAUSE.
<i>Who</i>	where	whither	whence	when	how	why
<i>The</i>	there	thither	thence	then	thus	the
<i>He</i>	here	hither	hence			

Most of the above can be compounded with a Preposition placed after them; as, *wherby, therein, hitherwith, hitherto, thenceforth, &c.* The Pronominal Adverbs have a Relative force.

The Adverbs denoting motion *to* and *from* a place are now rarely used. The Adverb denoting *rest* in a place is made to answer all purposes; as, *Come here (hither); go there (thither)*.

Instead of saying *He went hence to Calcutta*; we say, *He went from here to Calcutta*. The Preposition *from* has to be used to show the direction of the motion. On the other hand, in indicating motion *to* a place, the Preposition *to* is omitted; as, *Come hither—come (to) here*.

REMARKS ON SOME ADVERBS—

Yes is the same word as *aye*, ever. No is a compound of not ever. They have been called *word-sentences* *Are you warm?* Yes (I am warm). No in *no worse* is an Adverb.

Mistakes are very apt to be made in the use of *since*, *too*, *much*, *very*, *ago*, *only*, &c. Directions are given under Syntax.

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH USED AS ADVERBS.—Nouns; as, *town made*; *skin deep*. Pronouns; as, *none* the worse. Adjectives; as, *pretty good*; it looks *strange*. Prepositions; as, I told you *before*; come *in*. When Prepositions are not followed by objective cases, they are Adverbs.

PARSING ADVERBS.

In parsing Adverbs state: 1. The part of speech to which it belongs. 2. Its class. 3. The degree of comparison. 4. Its syntax.

EXERCISES.

How are Adverbs in *ly* compared? What Adverbs are compared like Adjectives? Name Adverbs compared irregularly? How may Adverbs be distinguished from Adjectives? What are *Phrase Adverbs*? How are nearly all Adverbs derived? How are most Adverbs formed? From what does *ly* come? How are Adverbs formed from Adjectives ending in *y* not preceded by a vowel? What change is made in Adjectives ending in *le*? What are *Prepositional Adverbs*? Name some Adverbs derived from Pronouns. How are they compounded? What Adverbs are now used instead of those denoting motion *to* or *from* a place? When are Prepositions used with them? When omitted? What do *yes* and *no* mean, and what are they properly? Give examples of Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Prepositions used as Adverbs.

Compare the following Adverbs:—Famously, far, bravely, little, ill, generously, nigh, late, well, highly, much.

Form Adverbs from the following words:—Glad, ample, rigid, feeble, gracious, playful, up, side, one, sure, in, two, shine, please, worthy, heaven, slow, down, most, merry, fault.

Classify the Adverbs in the following sentences, and mention the words they qualify:—I seldom come ashore here. Here he stopped and wept very much. The swallow, too, is come at last. He reads exceedingly well. I could have better spared a better man. The traveller immediately said that it was the finest place he had ever been in. Then out spake bold Horatius. Come where the shade

protects us from the sun. You always put things so pleasantly. We no longer believe such stories. Where are you going to-day? He never spoke about his own success. At times, I was much discouraged. Happily, I had a friend. I could not find him anywhere. He will come by-and-by. How do you like the view? Do not speak so fast. He lay right across the doorway. Is the ship afloat? Thrice the bell sounded loudly.

THE PREPOSITION.

A **Preposition** is a word *placed before* a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word; as, The book is *on* the table; Come *to* me.

The noun or pronoun which follows a Preposition is said to be *governed* by it, and is in the *objective* case.

Sometimes a Preposition comes *after* the word which it governs. This is especially the case with the Relative Pronoun, expressed or understood; as, *The boy (whom) you spoke of is here.*

Prepositions were in the oldest English prefixed to Verbs, as, "They could not *gain-say* (= against say) him." It was only in later English that they were taken from the Verb and placed before Nouns and Pronouns; as, They could not say (anything) against him.

As already mentioned, there are no words in the Indian vernaculars that correspond exactly to Prepositions in English. The nearest resemblances to them are the Post-positions, or signs of the cases (see page 30), placed *after* Nouns and Pronouns. The English Prepositions corresponding to the case-endings of some other languages are, *of* to the *genitive*; *to* or *for* to the *dative*; *by*, *with*, or *from* to the *ablative*.

Prepositions originally referred only to **place**. They do so in three ways:—

- (1) Some refer to *rest* in a place; as, *at, by, in, on, out, &c.*
- (2) Others refer to *motion* to or from a place; as, *down, from, unto, up, &c.*
- (3) Some refer to both *rest* and *motion*; as, *about, above, near, through, under, &c.*

From expressing the relationship of **place**, Prepositions serve to indicate relations of **time**; as, *before sunset; after ten o'clock.*

He travelled *from* Calcutta to Bombay (*Place*).

He travelled *from* rosy morning to dewy eve (*Time*).

Some Prepositions refer only to *time*; as, *during, until, since.*

Some Prepositions, originally descriptive only of **place**, have also come to denote the **agent, cause, or purpose** of an action; as, *by, with, through.*

EXERCISES.

What is a *Preposition*? Why are Prepositions so called? What is said of the Noun or Pronoun which follows a Preposition? When does the Preposition follow the word which it governs? To what were Prepositions prefixed in the oldest English? What are the nearest resemblances to Prepositions in the Indian vernaculars? What English Prepositions correspond to the case-endings of some languages? To what only did Prepositions originally refer? In what three ways do they refer to place? To what was the relationship of *place* afterwards transferred? What Prepositions refer only to *time*? What did some Prepositions afterwards come to denote? Give examples.

Name the Prepositions and tell the words they govern in the Objective Case.—He ran across the field into the house. Rama is above me in the class. Govind ran out of school, and hid himself among the bushes. Whom is that for? Krishna jumped over the wall, and fell into a ditch. Against whom are you come? Govind lives in Bombay. He went by sea from Calcutta to Madras. The book is under the table. We could not get there in time, because the carriage broke down. Wait until he comes. Through whom did you get it?

PREPOSITIONS—continued.

Prepositions are divided into three classes:—1. Simple; 2. Compound; 3. Phrase Prepositions.

1. The following are **Simple Prepositions**: *at, by, for, in, of, on, out, to, up, with.*

2. **Compound Prepositions** are formed in different ways. A Preposition may be prefixed to an Adverb; as, *before* (be=by), *behind, beneath, above, within, throughout.* A Preposition may be prefixed to a Noun; as, *aboard* (on board), *across, around, among, beside, outside, &c.*

In expressions like *a year, a day*, *a* is not the Indefinite Article, but a weakened form of the Preposition *on*. In Old English it was *on day*.

3. **Phrase Prepositions** are made up of two or more words; as, *instead of, on account of, together with, for the sake of.*

Some Participles are used as Prepositions ; as, *concerning, respecting, touching*. *Except* and *save* may now be regarded as Prepositions.

Prepositions are sometimes added to Verbs, the whole forming a *Prepositional Verb* ; as, *boast of, agree to, hope for*.

Prepositions are not always accompanied by Nouns. The direction of the movement may be stated without naming the object ; as, *rise up* ; *come near*. In such cases the Preposition combines with the Verb.

By the aid of Prepositions, Intransitive Verbs are thus made Transitive. The words should not be parsed separately.

Distinction between Adverbs and Prepositions.—

The same words are used sometimes as Adverbs and sometimes as Prepositions. They are to be distinguished according to the manner in which they are used. Prepositions always govern some Noun or Pronoun. Adverbs are not added to Nouns or Pronouns, but modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs. In "*Come on*," *on* is an Adverb ; in "*The book is on the table*," *on* is a Preposition.

But is a Preposition when it is equal to *except* ; as, *None but him*.

Nigh, near, nearer, next, are sometimes used as Prepositions, or as Adjectives with the Preposition *to* understood ; as, *Near him*, or *near (to) him*.

The following is a list of words which are generally Prepositions :

A, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, at, athwart. Before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by. Concerning. Down, during. Except, excepting. For, from. In, into. Near, nigh. Of, off, on, over. Regarding, respecting, round. Save, saving, since. Through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward, towards. Under, underneath, until, up, upon. With, within, without.

SOME CORRESPONDING SANSKRIT WORDS.—*At* contains the stem *a*, Sansk. *a-dhi*. *Of*, Sansk. *apa*. *By*, Sansk. *a-bhi*. *Fore*, Sansk. *para*. *Up*, Sansk. *upa*. *With*, Old English *mid*, Sansk. *mitha*. *Over*, Sansk. *upari*. *Under*, Sansk. *antar*. *Through*, Sansk. *tiras*.

MISTAKES IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS.—Three classes of mistakes are often made by Indian students in the use of this part of speech :

(1) Prepositions are inserted after Verbs where they should be omitted ; as, I have something to ask (*to*) you.

(2) Prepositions are omitted after Verbs where they should be inserted ; as, He would not listen (*to*) me.

(3) Wrong Prepositions are used after Verbs ; as, Rama is pleased *by* (with) his new book.

The directions under Syntax should be carefully studied.

EXERCISES.

Into what three classes are Prepositions divided ? Name some *Simple* Prepositions. Name some *Compound* Prepositions. How are they formed ? What are *Phrase* Prepositions ? What part of speech is *concerning*, and how is it used ? What are *Prepositional* Verbs ? What effect have such Prepositions on Intransitive Verbs ? How are words used sometimes as Adverbs, sometimes as Prepositions, to be distinguished ? How are Adverbs known from Prepositions ? Give examples of words used both as Adverbs and Prepositions. When is *but* a Preposition ? What Adjectives are sometimes used as Prepositions ? What Preposition may be understood ? Name some Sanskrit words corresponding to English Prepositions. What three classes of mistakes in the use of Prepositions are often made by Indian students ?

Arrange the following Prepositions into Simple and Compound :— Under, at, during, toward, with, beneath, above, to, near, beside, among, underneath, upon, excepting, down, concerning, betwixt, along, behind, against, but, after.

Mention the Prepositions in the following sentences, and name the words they qualify :— There is a garden behind the house. We left before my arrival. Regarding that remark, I have nothing to say. The man is beneath my notice. There is the school which we go to. I am fond of music. The murderer killed the man with a sword. Come away from the door. On account of the rain, I cannot go. We stayed in the country during the holidays. Rama was standing opposite the window. Krishna was absent without leave.

Make four sentences with *near*, *since*, *through*, *by* as Prepositions, and four sentences with them as Adverbs.

THE CONJUNCTION.

Conjunctions join sentences and words ; as, *You can go, but I must stay : Two and two make four.*

Conjunctions bear the same relation towards *sentences* which Prepositions bear towards *words*.

Relative Pronouns and Conjunctive Adverbs also join sentences together ; as, *I saw the boy who did it, He came when he was well.* But *who*, besides joining the sentences, has the force of a *relative* ; *when*, besides joining the sentences, has an *adverbial* meaning. Conjunctions *simply* join sentences or words.

Some Conjunctions help to shorten sentences, "*Rama and I will come,*" is equal to "*Rama will come and I will come.*"

Sentences are of three kinds :—

1. *Birds fly*, containing only one subject and one predicate, is called a *Simple* sentence.

2. *Birds fly and fishes swim*, is a *Compound* sentence. It is composed of simple sentences, each independent¹ of the other. Such sentences being of the same rank or order are called *co-ordinate*,² and the conjunction *and* which joins them is called a *co-ordinative conjunction*.

3. In the sentence, *Be diligent lest you fail*, one sentence is *dependent* on the other ; *you fail* is dependent on *Be diligent*. This is called a *Complex*³ sentence. The dependent sentence or clause is called *subordinate*,⁴ and the conjunction *lest* which joins it to the principal sentence is called a *Subordinative Conjunction*.

According to the purpose they serve in a sentence, Conjunctions are divided into *Co-ordinative* and *Subordinative*.

CO-ORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS may be divided into the following principal classes :—

1. *Cumulative*⁵ Conjunctions *simply add one statement to another* ; as, *and, both, also, as well as, not only, &c.*

¹ Not under another. ² Of equal rank. ³ Folded together, not simple. *con.* together, *pluo.* to foll. ⁴ Lower in order, ⁵ Increasing by additions, *cumulus*, a heap.

2. **Adversative¹ or Disjunctive² Conjunctions** *place the second clause in some kind of opposition to what precedes ; as, or, nor, else, but, still, yet, for all that, not-but, &c.*

3. **Illative Conjunctions** *express effect or consequence ; as, therefore, wherefore, consequently, so, hence, then, so then, &c.*

Illative from il for in, latum, to bear, denotes what follows from something else.

EXERCISES.

What are Conjunctions ? How do Conjunctions and Prepositions differ ? What other words join sentences ? How do Conjunctions differ from Relative Pronouns and Conjunctive Adverbs ? How do some Conjunctions shorten sentences ? How many kinds of sentences are there ? What is a *Simple* sentence ? What is a *Compound* sentence ? What are the simple sentences they contain called ? Why ? What are the Conjunctions which unite them called ? What is a *Complex* sentence ? What is the dependent sentence said to be ? Why ? What is the Conjunction that joins them called ? Into what two classes are Conjunctions divided ? Into what principal classes may Co-ordinative Conjunctions be divided ? Give the meaning of each class, and examples of them. What is the meaning of *illative* ?

Write ten compound sentences, each containing a Co-ordinative Conjunction.

CONJUNCTIONS—continued.

SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS may be divided into the following principal classes :—

1. **Conjunctions of Reason and Cause ;** *as, because, for, since, whereas, in order that, so that, so then, inasmuch as, &c.*

2. **Conjunctions of Supposition or Condition ;** *as, if, unless, except, though, notwithstanding, &c.*

3. **Conjunctions of End or Purpose ;** *as, that, in order that, so-as, as-as, lest.*

4. **Conjunctions of Time ;** *as, when, while, as, until, before, after, &c.*

¹ Denoting opposition ; *ad, to, versum, to turn.* ² Disjoining, separating ; *dis, asunder, jungo, to join.*

Such are sometimes called *Adverbial* Conjunctions. They are partly Relative Adverbs, partly Prepositions before clauses.

Subordinative Conjunctions are sometimes used co-ordinatively ; as, He took the poor men to the hospital, *where* (= and there) they got medicine.

Correctly speaking, there is a certain amount of dependence shown whenever the sentences or clauses are joined by a Conjunction. This dependence is smallest with *and*; it is somewhat greater with *but* and with *or*; but it is greatest of all with *if* and the subordinating Conjunctions. It is at *if* that the line is drawn in dividing the Conjunctions into two classes—the one signifying comparative independence, or co-ordination, the other dependence or subordination.—*Bain*.

Correlative¹ Conjunctions.—Some Conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called *correlatives*. Correlatives are words which have a like relation to each other in a sentence.

The following are the most frequently used pairs :—

Either	or :	Either Govind or Krishna may go.
Neither	nor :	Neither Govind nor Krishna may go.
Whether	or :	Whether they go or stay, we will go.
Though	yet :	Though he fell, yet he was not hurt.
Both	and :	Both Govind and Krishna may go.
As	as :	His writing is as good as yours.
So	as :	His writing is not so good as yours.

Or is a corruption of *either* ; *nor* of *neither*.

Forms of Conjunctions.—Conjunctions may also be arranged according to their *forms* :—

1. *Simple* Conjunctions ; as, *and, as, but, for, if, &c.*
2. *Compound* Conjunctions ; as, *however, likewise, nevertheless, therefore, &c.*
3. *Phrase* Conjunctions ; as, *as far as, as, though, inasmuch as, lest that, in order that, &c.*

Distinction between Conjunctions and Prepositions.
—The *same* word may be a Preposition or Conjunction, according to the manner in which it is used. Thus :—

Rama came <i>after</i> Govind ;	<i>after</i> is a <i>prep.</i>
Rama came <i>after</i> Govind left ;	<i>after</i> is a <i>conj.</i>

¹ *Cor*, for *con*, together and relate ; related alike, each to the other.

When such words are followed by nouns or pronouns in the Objective they are *Prepositions* ; when they join sentences together they are *Conjunctions*.

EXERCISES.

Into what classes may *Subordinative Conjunctions* be divided ? Give examples of each class. What are *Conjunctions of Time* sometimes called ? How are *Subordinative Conjunctions* sometimes used ? At what word is the line drawn dividing the two classes of *Conjunctions* ? What are *Correlative Conjunctions* ? What does *correlative* mean ? Name the principal *Correlative Conjunctions*. From what are *or* and *nor* corrupted ? What are the three forms of *Conjunctions* ? How are *Conjunctions* distinguished from *Prepositions* ?

Write six sentences each containing a Subordinative Conjunction.

Write six sentences each containing Correlative Conjunctions.

Point out the Conjunctions in the following sentences, mentioning the class to which each belongs :—

Take either the one or the other. The rain came on before we reached home. He had all he wanted, but he still grumbled. You as well as he must go. Although all his friends were against him, he would not yield. He is guilty, and therefore he should be punished. Make no rash promises lest you should be unable to fulfil them. You must not leave till I return. He is there, for I saw him. We were told to go, so we left. Men work that they may live. I will do it since you desire me.

Distinguish Prepositions from Conjunctions in the following sentences :—

Before I came, he had fallen before the door. Come twice a week but not oftener. After dinner I went to the beach. Except you reform, you must suffer the consequences. Because he troubles me, I will do it. Govind is clever, but careless. Tell me whether you understand the proposal. The prisoner did not hear, as he was deaf. He went from country to country, but without success. Neither a borrower nor a lender be. Whether I come or not, let the work go on.

THE INTERJECTION.

An *INTERJECTION* is a word used to express some sudden feeling ; as " Ah ! what shall I do ? "

The *Interjection* is not properly a " Part of speech," as it has no grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.

Interjections have been called word-sentences. Any word used in exclamation is an Interjection; as, *Behold! welcome!* In *Ah me!* some word is understood; as, *pity me.*

The following is a list of the most common Interjections:—

Adieu! ah! aha! alas! avaunt! away! fie! ha! hah! hail! hark! he! ho! hush! hurrah! huzza! lo! O! oh! off! pshaw! pooh! tush!

III. SYNTAX.*

SYNTAX explains how words are put together in sentences.

Syntax comes from a Greek word¹ meaning *putting in order*, or *arrangement*.

The Rules of Syntax are of three kinds: (1) of CONCORD; (2) of GOVERNMENT; (3) of ORDER.

Concord² is the agreement of words in respect of number, person, tense, or mood.

Concord means *being of the same heart or mind*.

When two words joined together are of the same number, gender, person, or tense, they are said to *agree* with one another.

The chief concords in English Grammar are those of the Verb with its Subject, the Pronoun with the Noun it stands for; the Relative with the Antecedent.

Government is the power which one word has over the case or mood of another.

English has so few inflections that the rules of Government apply principally to Pronouns. The chief kinds of Government are those of a Transitive Verb and its Object; a Preposition and a Noun or Pronoun.

Order is the giving to each word its proper place in the sentence.

The Order of words in sentences is either *grammatical* or *rhetorical*.³

* This division of the Subject is treated so fully in the *New Manual of Grammar* that few additions are required. The Rules are already so numerous that thorough revision is what is chiefly needed.

¹ *Syn*, together; *taxis*, joining.

² *Con*, together; *cor*, *cordis*, heart.

³ *Re-tor-ik-al*; relating to public speaking, or speaking with elegance and force; *rhetor*, a public speaker.

Grammatical Order is that in which words are generally placed in speaking and writing.

Rhetorical Order is that in which the emphatical parts of the sentence are placed first.

For this reason, the Rhetorical Order is also called the *emphatical*. It is used chiefly in poetry and in impassioned¹ prose.

SUBJECT AND VERB.

Rule 1.—A Verb agrees with its Subject in *Number and Person*; as, I write; thou readest; we speak.

If the Subject is Singular, the Verb must be Singular. If the Subject is in the First Person, the Verb must be in the First Person.

In many languages the Verb must also agree in Gender with its Subject; but the English Verb does not change in this respect.

The Subject is known by putting the question *who* or *what* to the Verb. Mistakes are chiefly made in long sentences. The Noun next the Verb is often not the Subject.

The Subject of a Verb may be :—

1. A *Noun*; as, *Gorind* took the letter.
2. A *Pronoun*; as, *He* went to England.
3. An *Adjective*; as, *Good* never comes of wickedness.
4. An *Infinitive*; as, *To err* is human.
5. A *Gerund*; as, *Walking* is healthful.
6. *Part of a sentence*; as, *Will begun* is half done.

The Verb *to be* sometimes agrees with the Nominative that follows it, instead of the Nominative which precedes it; as, *The wages of sin is death*.

When a Verb is followed by several Nominatives, it usually agrees with the first, and is understood of the others; as, *Thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory*.

Note 1.—The Subject of a Verb should always be in the **Nominative**; as, “Neither *him* nor *her* saw it,” should be, “Neither *he* nor *she* saw it.”

Note 2.—When the infinitive mood, participle, or a part of a sentence is the Subject, the Verb should be in the Third Person Singular; as, “*To obey is better than sacrifice.*” Seeing is believing.

Note 3.—*Omission of the Subject*:—The Subject is not always expressed in the Indian vernaculars, as it is implied in the termination of the Verb; thus, “came” alone may be used. In English,

¹ Expressing strong feeling; *passion*, *passus*, to suffer.

"came" would be indefinite; hence, the Subject must generally be stated.

There are the following exceptions in which the Subject is understood :—

1. In the *Imperative Mood*; as, *Begone!*
2. When a *wish* is expressed; as, *Would he were living!*
3. In *Elliptical*¹ sentences; as, *Thank you.*

A Verb in the Infinitive mood has no Subject. Only finite Verbs have Subjects.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The lion roars. Bombay is noted for its mangoes. The Romans destroyed Jerusalem. Krishna learns his lesson. Twelve years of my life have passed away. The motion of these little animals is very curious. To deceive is sinful. The heroes of the war have been rewarded. The school of experience teaches many useful lessons. Among the great blessings and wonders of creation may be classed the regularity of times and seasons. To rejoice in the welfare of our fellow-creatures is, in some degree, to partake of their good fortune.

Correct the following Errors :—

The state of his affairs are very prosperous. The evils of life is numerous enough. Here comes the men. The pleasures of sin is short. The eyes of the fly is very curious. You was there too. The pyramids of Egypt has stood more than three thousand years. How do your new coat please you? A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye. Was you at school to-day? The leaves of the tree is falling. No! says I. It is one of the best books that has been written.

Note 1.—Him that is diligent will improve. She and me are of the same age. Who broke this slate? Me. Them that seek wisdom will be wise.

¹ Having a part understood; *en*, in, *leipo*, to leave.

Note 2.—To practise the virtues are the sure way to love them. To honour our superiors are our duty. To do to others as we wish that they should do to us, constitute the principle of virtue.

Note 3.—Have heard. What do think? Say there has been a great battle. Went away.

Write four sentences, each with a Noun for its Subject; and three sentences, each with an Infinitive or part of a sentence as its Subject.

Rule 2.—Collective Nouns are followed by Verbs in the Singular or the Plural Number, according to the sense.

If *oneness* is expressed, the Verb must be *Singular*; if the individuals of the collection act separately, the Verb must be *Plural*, as, The council is sitting; the people are divided.

Note 1.—Some Collective Nouns, as *army, fleet, regiment, &c.*, are always followed by Singular Verbs. When, however, they take Plural forms, the Verbs must likewise be Plural. Thus: The army *is* in the field; The combined armies *were* defeated.

Note 2.—Collective Nouns having but one form, as *mankind, clergy*, generally admit the Plural only. Those which have two forms, as *party*, generally take the Verb in the Singular, when the Singular form is used, and in the Plural, when the Plural form is used; as, *The party is much divided, and has little influence; and Parties are now nearly balanced, and therefore all their movements are cautiously made.*

Government is sometimes used in the Plural, but the Singular is preferable. So with *Committee*, unless there is a difference of opinion.

Note 3.—Nouns, whose Singular is figuratively¹ taken with a Plural signification, require the Verb to be Plural; as, *Twenty head of cattle are for sale.*

Note 4.—Nouns which have a Plural only, and do not imply unity, for the most part require the Verb in the Plural; as, *Riches take to themselves wings and fly away.*

Note 5.—Even Nouns having a Plural only, though they imply unity, as *scissors, trousers, tongs, &c.*, require the Verb to be Plural.

Note 6.—Though the title of a book may be Plural, the Verb must be Singular, as the work is spoken of as a whole. Thus, "The Pleasures of Hope" *is* by Campbell.

Parse the following Sentences:—

The youth in this country are not well educated. The British Parliament is composed of king or queen, lords,

¹ Not according to the strict meaning.

and commons. The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as their chief good. The crowd was soon dispersed. The fleet sails to-morrow. An army of ten thousand was sent to Madras. The assembly was addressed by several persons. The senate was by this time weary of war. Ten sail were taken.

Correct the following Errors :—

This meeting do not recommend the plan. The number of failures increase. When the tiger appeared, the flock were scattered. The party were broken up. He said the sheep was so numerous that he could not count them. This class of persons are an example. The army were routed. Their riches makes them idle. The scissors is sharp. The tongs was heavy. Where is the compasses? He used to wear a silk trouser. Dickens's "Household Words" are in the library.

Write six sentences, each with a Collective Noun as its Subject.

Rule 3.—Two or more Singular Nominatives joined by and require a Verb in the Plural.

As one and one make two, so two Singular Nouns are equal to one Plural. Thus, Rama and Krishna *are* good students.

Note 1.—If the two Singular Nouns joined by *and* refer to the same person or thing, the Verb must be *Singular*; as, The general and historian *has* observed.

Note 2.—When two Singular Nouns, coupled by *and* convey the idea of *one* thing, they require a Singular Verb; as, Curry and rice *is* wholesome; The horse and carriage *is* at the door. When, however, the things are spoken of as distinct, the Plural must be used; as, Curry and rice *are* both good.

Note 3.—When two Singular Nouns are joined by *as well as*, the Verb is Singular; as, Rama as well as Krishna *is* here. In full, the sentence would be, Rama is here as well as Krishna (is here). When combination is intended, *and* should be used.

Note 4.—A Singular Noun, joined to another Noun by *with*, requires a Verb in the Singular; as, The General, with his troops, *was* there. Transposed, the sentence reads thus: The General was there with his troops.

Note 5.—A nominative preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no* (unless *no* be followed by a plural Noun), requires the Verb and Pronoun to be in the Singular; as, Every man *has* his failings; Each cow, sheep, and horse, *was* sacrificed.

Note 6.—When two or more nominatives of different persons are joined by the conjunction *and*, the Verb agrees with the *first* person in preference to the *second*, and with the *second* in preference to the *third*; as, You and I *have* learned our lessons; You and he *have* received your reward.

But if one pronoun is *affirmative* and the other *negative*, the Verb agrees with the *affirmative*, as, *He*, and not you, *is* wrong.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Ceylon and Java are islands. Both France and England are without the Torrid Zone. Energy and perseverance are the grand peculiarities of the Anglo-Saxon race. Honour and shame from no condition rise. The king, the queen, and the prince have arrived. Hannibal, as well as Napoleon, crossed the Alps. Faith, hope, and charity are cardinal virtues. Each man, woman, and child was saved. The merchant, with all his goods, is leaving to-day. You and I must get our things ready for the journey. The guide, and not you, is to be blamed.

Correct the following Errors :—

The picture, the slate, and the book, belongs to me. False hope and false terror is equally to be avoided. Both he and she is still there. You and I has been disappointed. Is your brother and sister at home? Copper and tin is soft metals. Sorrow and silence is strong. Happiness and misery is from within.

Notes.—Hannibal, with his army, were able to cross the Alps. Each man and woman get food daily. Govind, as well as Krishna, were late. A knife and fork are ready for you. You and I must mind your duty. The Cape of Good Hope, as well as the China Seas, are famed for hurricanes. They and we have lost their pens. Where are his bread and butter? Rama, and not you, deserve the prize.

Write three sentences each containing two or more Singular Subjects followed by a Plural Verb.

Rule 4.—*Two or more Singular Nominatives separated by or or nor require a Verb in the Singular.*

Only one is taken ; so the Verb must be Singular. As, Rama or Krishna is wrong.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Neither youth nor beauty is a security against death. Town or country is equally pleasant to us. To court a friend in prosperity, or to forsake a friend in adversity, is mean and despicable. Force or bribery overruled every election. Neither precept nor discipline is so forcible as example.

Correct the following Errors :—

Either he or his brother were in Madras. To scorn or to hate are equally sinful. Your approbation or disapprobation affect him more than you imagine. Benevolence, not wealth, inspire admiration. Neither life nor property were respected. Man's happiness or misery depend, in a great measure, upon himself.

Rule 5.—*When two or more Nominatives in different Numbers are joined by or or nor, the Verb is in the Plural ; as, Rama or his friends are to blame.*

The Plural Nominative should be placed next the Verb.

Note.—When two or more Nominatives of different Persons are joined by *or* or *nor*, the Verb agrees with the one next it ; as, Either you or he is to blame ; Neither you nor I am to go.

Latham differs from the Rule in the Note, but it is supported by Bain and Morris.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Either your box or your books were burnt. Neither the leader nor his men were aware of what had taken place. Either the master or the servants are at home. Neither moon nor stars were seen. I heard that either you or James refused to go.

Correct the following Errors :—

Neither he nor you was there. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved. Either he or I intends to be

present. Neither riches nor health is to be depended on. Either they or I am in fault.

Rule 6.—*A Noun or a Pronoun joined to a Participle, without being connected with any other Verb in the sentence, is said to be in the Nominative Absolute*¹; as, *Day dawning, we arose.*

Absolute means *loosed from, standing alone*. Such a clause is said to be *absolute*, because it stands alone, and the Noun is said to be in the *Nominative Absolute*, because it does not agree with any Verb.

In the Oldest English the Absolute Case was the *Dative*. Milton has, "*Him* destroyed, all else will follow."

If a Noun is the Nominative to a Verb, it cannot be in the Nominative Absolute; as, *The gambler, having lost all his money, drowned himself.*

The Noun or Pronoun is sometimes left out or understood; as, *Granting this, what follows?* The Participle in such a case has been called an *Impersonal Absolute*. The Participle is sometimes understood; as, *Joy (being) absent, grief is present.*

Parse the following Sentences:—

The war being finished, the troops were withdrawn. The town being relieved, the enemy raised the siege. That being the case, I can make no objection. I tell you, that your son having thus wasted his time, we have no further hopes of him. I shall not lag behind, thou leading.

What is meant by the Nominative Absolute? Write four sentences each containing a Nominative Absolute.

Position of the Subject.

Rule 7.—*The Subject or Nominative usually comes before the Verb*; as, *Rama struck Govind.*

In the case of Transitive Verbs, this position is necessary to distinguish the Subject from the Object.

¹ *Ab*, from; *to-lu'-tus*, loosed.

Exceptions.

The Nominative comes after the Verb in the following cases :—

1. When the sentence is **Interrogative**; as, *Will you go?*

The Nominative comes between the Auxiliary and the Verb. If there is no auxiliary, *do* or *did* is usually placed before the Nominative; as, *Did you write?* Sometimes the Verb is simply placed first; as, *Lovest thou me?* The latter form is seldom used except in poetry, and with the Verb *to be*; as, *Is he well?*

In Urdu, &c., there is no difference in the arrangement of a sentence, whether it is interrogative or affirmative.¹ Indian students sometimes make mistakes by not altering the arrangement in English. *Why you will go?* ought to be, *Why will you go?*

Another error is to omit the auxiliary *do* or *did*. *Why you study English?* ought to be, *Why do you study English?* *Why he came yesterday?* ought to be, *Why did he come yesterday?* *You are diligent or not?* should be, *Are you diligent?* *He is rich, is it?* should be, *Is he rich?*

But when the subject is an **Interrogative Pronoun**, it comes before the Verb; as, *Who gave them?*

2. When the sentence is **Imperative**; as, *Go ye.* The subject is often omitted; as, *Run.*

3. In conditional clauses without *if*; as, *Had I seen him.*

4. When the sentence begins with **there**, **here**, &c.; as, *There was an uproar.*

There, here, is not the Adverb, *in that place*. It has no meaning, and is used only to introduce the Verb.

5. When **neither** or **nor**, signifying **and not**, comes before the Verb; as, *Nor was he mistaken.*

6. When a **wish** or **exclamation** is expressed; as, *Long live the Queen! How blind is man!*

7. In introducing the parts of a dialogue; as, *said he; replied Govind.*

8. For the sake of **emphasis**; as, *Fallen, fallen is Babylon!*

9. In **poetry**; as, *From out waste places comes a cry.*

Great liberty is allowed in the position of words in poetry.

¹ Saying something.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Discontent always injures those who foster it. Virtue is its own reward, and vice its own punishment. True greatness consists in the possession of great virtues. Can you repeat your lessons? Shall I send him to school? Follow the customs of the world in matters indifferent; but stop when they become sinful. Faithful are the wounds of a friend; but the kisses of an enemy are deceitful. Never was man so tormented as I have been. There sits the author of all the mischief. "Come now," says he, "let us dine." "I wish," cried the boy's father, "that you would send him away." Had I considered the matter with greater attention, I might have given a different opinion.

Correct the following Errors :—

What they are copying? Why you bring it? Why you brought it? How, then, you came here? Why he goes so often? How to do this sum? What for he do this? How the carpenter does his work? Why you are going? Where these men come from? What the teacher said last night? In what book you read it? How much money you have? Your father is sick, is it? You came yesterday or not? Why you did come? How we can spend our time foolishly when we know that hereafter we must give an account of our thoughts, words, and actions? He were ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him.

THE NOUN.

Rule 8.—*Nouns or Pronouns in apposition agree in Case.*

Apposition comes from a word meaning *placed near*.¹ Nouns referring to the same person, but not joined by a conjunction, are said to be in *apposition*; as, William the Conqueror. This form is used by way of explanation.

The words in apposition may be separated from each other; as, *He comes, the herald of a noisy world.*

Note 1.—A Noun is sometimes put in apposition to a sentence, or a part of a sentence; as, "Rama was very inattentive to his studies, *conduct* which greatly displeased his father."

Note 2.—Nouns and Pronouns in apposition do not always agree in *Number*; as, *They* went away, *every man* to his own house.

Note 3.—When the Nouns in apposition are in the possessive case, the *s* and the apostrophe are used with only one of them; as, *It is an essay of Bacon's the philosopher*; or *of Bacon, the philosopher's*. The former mode must always be adopted when the last term consists of several words.

¹ *Ap, ad, to; pos'-itus, placed.*

Parse the following Sentences :—

Valmiki, the author of the Ramayana, lived in ancient times. I have read Milton's great work, *Paradise Lost*. Columbus, the discoverer of America, was a native of Genoa. London, the greatest city in the world, is built on the banks of the River Thames. Xenophon, the soldier and historian, was a disciple of Socrates, the philosopher. I shall see him myself. They were drawn with seven oranges, a thing quite out of taste. The Saxons, a German tribe, invaded England. We have turned every one to his own way.

Correct the following Errors :—

Note 3.—Call at Smith's the hatter and drapers. The plan was Pitt, the great politician and premier's. The head was John's the Baptist. That expression is Johnson, one of the giants of literature's. I have a letter of Cowper the poet's. Those colours are the Victory, the flagship of Nelson's. I have been reading an essay of Bacon, the lawyer, scholar, and philosopher's.

Write four sentences, each with a Noun in Apposition.

Rule 9.—A Noun denoting the possessor of an object must be put in the **Possessive Case**; as, *Rama's book*.

The Possessive at first denoted mere possession; but it has gradually required a wider meaning; as, *Rama's marriage*.

The presence or absence of the apostrophe gives a different meaning to a sentence. "What do you think of Rama's coming?" indicates that he has already come. "What do you think of Rama coming?" means whether he should come.

Note 1.—The Possessive is seldom used except where the Noun denotes a living being or personified object. In the case of things without life, which cannot possess, the Objective with *of* is used. Thus we may say, *The lion's roar*, but not *the book's price*. The latter ought to be, *the price of a book*. But the Possessive may be used in the case of time; as, *a year's notice*, *an hour's walk*. The Objective with *of* may be used with persons, especially where more prominence is given to the thing possessed than to the possessor; as, *the book of Rama* has been stolen.

Note 2.—When the latter Noun expresses one object, which is the common property of several individuals, or when the former consists of more than one term, the apostrophic *'s* is affixed to the last; as, *John, Thomas, and Henry's estate*; *John the Baptist's head*.

Expressions like *Messrs. Jones and Robinson* are regarded as one compound phrase.

When several subjects are respectively assigned to each, the 's is annexed to each ; as, *John's, Thomas's, and Henry's estate* ; i.e.,¹ the estate of John, the estate of Thomas, and the estate of Henry.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Money is the miser's god. The bookseller's shop is well supplied with paper. The spider's thread is cable to man's tie on earthly bliss. It is yours ; it is mine. My fathers' ancient burial place is there.

Notes.—With priests' and warriors' voice between. Have you read Cowper the poet's works ? William the Conqueror's son was married to a Saxon princess. The safety lamp is an invention of Sir Humphrey Davy's. This picture of my brother's cost fifty rupees. I have seen the Pope officiate at St. Peter's. *The Task* is a poem of Cowper's. A year's supply is now in stock.

Correct the following Errors:—

Rule.—From another's experience do thou learn wisdom. Wisdom ways are ways of pleasantness. Thy fathers' virtue reflects honour on thee. The poet's genius would have immortalized the monarch's deeds. The scholars' improvement is the master object. He rises as on eagle wings. I shall return to my fathers' house. We should not interfere with others' affairs. The teachers' learning commands the boys' respect. They should have been attending to their friends' affairs.

Note 1.—The house's height. Bombay's Governor. The street's width is insufficient. The letter's envelope is torn.

Note 2.—Thacker's, Spink's, and Company's bookselling establishment is very extensive. This is Duke Wellington's the General's tent. The house you so admire is John's, Alexander's, and William's. These three books are (severally) John, William, and Thomas's.

*Convert the following sentences into the possessive form:—*The paintings of Reynolds, West, and Lawrence, are greatly admired. The books of Thomas, John, and Henry are come. The oratory of Burke, Fox, and Pitt, has been greatly lauded. Have you obtained the consent of your father and mother ? The presence of the emperor, king, and prince, added dignity to the ceremony.

Change the Possessive, in the exercises under the Rule, into the Objective with of.

¹ Contracted from the Latin words, *id est*, that is.

The Possessive Case—continued.

Note 3.—When a long explanatory term occurs, 's is generally affixed to the name, or first term; as, *We staid at Lord Ashley's, the ornament of his country, and friend of every virtue.*

Note 4.—It is improper to place a clause of a sentence between a possessive case and the words which usually follow it. Thus, *She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding,* should be, *She began to extol the excellent understanding of the farmer as she called him.*

Note 5.—When comparison or a particular emphasis is implied, or when words intervene between the series of Nouns, the 's is used with each; as, *They are Jane's, as well as Mary's drawings; He had the physician's, the surgeon's, and the apothecary's assistance.*

Note 6.—The too frequent occurrence in a sentence of the Possessive, or of the Objective with *of*, is to be avoided. Too many hissing sounds are also objectionable; as, *for Moses's sake,* instead of *for the sake of Moses.*

The sign of the Possessive is repeated when one Possessive is used to specify another; as, *Peter's wife's mother.*

Note 7.—The Possessive may be used along with *of*, when the possessor is understood to have more of the things named than are referred to in the sentence; as, *That book is one of my brother's;* that is, *It is one book of my brother's books.*

Note 8.—In possessive phrases, the last word is often understood; as, *He went to St. James's;* that is, *St. James's Palace.* This does not apply to pronouns. We cannot say, *I went to yours yesterday;* but *I went to your house, &c.*

Note 9.—A participial phrase, or verbal Noun, often supplies the place of the latter Noun; as, *Owing to the letter's not being received; I am vexed at Rama's refusing to go.*

Note 10.—When the possessor is the name of a city, &c., the possessor is sometimes used as an Adjective to the thing possessed; as, *a Calcutta merchant, the school jennee.*

EXERCISES.

Note 1.—I called at Longman, the well-known publisher and bookseller's. These are Solomon, the celebrated sage, and king of the Jewish people's proverbs. I live at Raeburn, the celebrated portrait painter's. The speeches are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's.

Note 5.—His fathers worth, to say nothing of his uncle, has greatly assisted him. The Andromeda, not the Invincible, nor the Victory's crew, has been paid off. Convert the following examples into the possessive form:—He lost not only the confidence of the king, but at the same time that also of the Chancellor. I

was regulated not only by the advice of the surgeon and apothecary but also by that of the physician.

Note 6.—It was his father's sister's son's house. Have you read the account of the General of the great battle? Of some of the books of each of the classes of literature, a catalogue will be given. The ship is commanded by Lord Raglans' cousin's nephew. The Emperor's uncle's son's death was universally lamented.

It happened that Moses's rod swallowed up the rest. This is the first witness' place; the others are the other witness' boxes. He was appointed in Felix's room. Achilles was Peleus's son.

Note 7.—This picture of the Queen's is a very striking likeness of her. Were you present at the sale of the pictures of the Queen? He was an old friend of me. *Tell the words in the following examples indicating plurality of the objects possessed:*—Another horse of the lawyer's has been detected. That horse is one of Peter's. That adventure of the hero's has excited great astonishment. *The Task* is a poem of Cowper's. The law of gravitation is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.

Note 8.—*Supply the appropriate words in the following sentences*—St. Peter's, at Rome, is the finest building in the world. You will get the book at Higginbotham's. Send the servant to the draper's. He was married yesterday morning at St. Andrew's.

Note 9.—This arose from the Count associating with bad people, and was the cause of him losing office. The dislike originated in the Queen intercepting certain letters. It occurred in consequence of the letter remaining unanswered. He judged from the likelihood of the evil coming upon him.

Note 10.—The house's door is open. An Amritsar's shawl merchant called to-day. The library's key is lost. The school's wall has fallen.

Rule 10.—*Nouns or Pronouns denoting persons or things addressed are in the Vocative Case; as, O Rama!*

Note.—The first Personal Pronoun is excepted, being put in the Objective: as, *Ah me!* The Preposition *to* is probably understood. The Vocative is also called the *Nominative of Address*.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Now, my friend, let us go back to my house. There is no terror, Cassius, in your threats. Go, wondrous creature! mount where science guides. Mourn him, thou Sun, great source of light! Hail, beauteous stranger of the grove! Ye hills of my country, farewell ever more.

The is a weakened form of **that**. It is the *defining*, or *marking out* Article. It is used to point out some particular person or thing. Give me **the pen**, implies some particular one.

The Indefinite Article may be used in a general as well as in an individual sense. Bring me *a book* = *any book*.

The three following sentences have the same meaning :—

A horse is a useful animal.

The horse is a useful animal.

Horses are useful animals.

General Rules.

I. Every Common Noun in the Singular requires an Article, or some such word as *this, each, my, &c.* *I saw cow*, should be, *I saw a cow*, or, *I saw the cow*. *This box is broken* ; *My cap is white*.

II. Articles should not be used before Proper Nouns, Common Nouns personified, Abstract Nouns used in a general sense, and Names of Materials. *I saw the Rama*, should be, *I saw Rama* ; *Conscience pleads her cause* ; *Justice is commendable* ; *Gold is heavy*.

Proper Nouns point out some particular person, and no Article is needed.

EXCEPTIONS.

1. Common Nouns in the Singular, used in a general sense, do not require an Article ; as, *Man is mortal*.

2. Proper Nouns used as Common, Abstract Nouns and Names of Materials used in a particular sense, require an Article ; as, *Valmiki was the Homer of India* ; *the industry of Govind* ; *the gold of Australia*.

The is generally used before the names of books, unless they bear the names of persons ; as, *the Bible, the Koran, the Vedas, Hamlet, Sakuntala*. When the author's name is mentioned, we may say *the Hamlet of Shakespeare*, or *Shakespeare's Hamlet*.

The is used before the names of ships ; as, *the Victoria*.

The usage with regard to Geographical Names is puzzling. We can say *the Pacific*, among oceans ; but we cannot say *the Asia*, among continents.

The following general directions may be given :—

(1.) The Definite Article should generally be placed before the names of Rivers, Gulfs, Seas, Oceans, Groups of Islands, Mountain Ranges, and descriptive names of Countries ; as, *The Ganges, the Persian Gulf, the Arabian Sea, the Andaman Islands, the United States, the Himalayas*.

(2.) The Definite Article, as a rule, should not be placed before the names of Continents, Countries, Capes, single Islands or Mountains, unless some descriptive term is used ; as, *Asia, India, Cape Comorin, Ceylon, Vesuvius*. But we say *the Punjab*.

(3.) The Definite Article is generally omitted before the names of titles or professions, *followed by the name* ; as, *Queen Victoria, General White, Father Francis, Lawyer Smith*.

When *not followed by the name*, *the* may be used ; as, *The Viceroy, the Governor-General, the Chief Justice, the Superintendent of Police, &c.* *The* is also used with foreign titles ; as, *The Emperor William*.

(4.) *The* is used with *an ordinal number* of a series written in letters ; but when written in Roman notation, no Article is used ; as, *William the Third ; William III.* *The* is also used before *dates*, as, *The 24th of May*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The gardener gave Krishna a dozen for an anna. The farmer still owes a few pounds of his rent. The three men sat down under the shade of a large and spreading tree. I saw a man and a woman on my way to the city. He who depends on his own diligence will succeed better than he who depends on a friend and patron. The race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong.

Correct the following Errors :—

The good boy is the delight of his parents. Virtuous woman is the crown of her husband. Evening star does not twinkle. Ganges is the Indian river. The Mont Blanc is one of Alps. It is noun. I go to temple. He used to wear beard. English language is the good one. You are fool to say that. After long time he came. An ox was found in jungle. He ate a sugar. Indus has overflowed. He went to the Ceylon. The envy is cruel. The water is necessary to man. He understands the grammar. I saw lion in field. Cocoa-nut palm flourishes in the Cochin. The Lucknow is fine city. I have studied the grammar, the arithmetic, and the geography. I sailed across Red Sea. How timid creature is deer !

Amazon flows into Atlantic. The gold is heavier than the lead.

THE ARTICLE—continued.

Special Rules.

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

Note 1.—The Indefinite Article, as a rule, is used only with *Singular Nouns*; but it may be used with *Collective* and *Plural Nouns*, when the numbers are taken as one; as, *an army*; *a hundred men*; *a few mangoes*; *a great many people*.

The Indefinite Article is sometimes used to denote a man of *no note*; as, *A Mr. Smith*.

The numeral *one* should not be used instead of the Indefinite Article. *One tiger went into one jungle*, ought to be, *A tiger went into a jungle*. *One* is to be used only where the *number* is emphatic.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

Note 2.—The Definite Article is used before Adjectives in the Superlative; as, *He gave me the best book*.

We cannot say, *a best book*, for that would imply that there were *other best books*. If a Possessive Pronoun is used before the Superlative, the Article is not required; as, *This is my best hat*.

The Definite Article is used before a Proper Adjective when "people" or "nation" is understood; but is omitted when "language" is understood; as, *The English and the French*; *I am learning English*.

English = the language. The English = the nation; but in *The English of Shakespeare*, the article is inserted because of the descriptive phrase which follows it.

The Definite Article is sometimes used with Adjectives to represent a whole class or an abstract idea; as, *The good alone are happy*; *the beautiful*. We also say *the lion*, &c.

The is used with Nouns that represent well-known single objects or single wholes; as, *The sun*, *the river*, *the door*, *the Queen*, *the nobility*, &c. It is also used before Common Nouns to distinguish one class from another; as, *The palm*, *the tiger*.

The Definite Article is sometimes used instead of the Possessive Pronoun; as, *I have a pain in the head*, instead of *my head*.

Note 3.—Though a Common Noun may take the Indefinite Article when first mentioned, it afterwards takes the Definite Article; as, *A thief went into a house. When the owner of the house saw the thief*, &c.

OMISSION OF THE ARTICLES.

Note 4.—When an Adjective is used predicatively, the Article is omitted; as, *Rama is diligent.*

Nouns in the Plural used indefinitely take no Article; as, *Birds fly.*

The Article is sometimes omitted for brevity in common expressions; as, *in school, to dinner, from head to foot, &c.*

Articles are sometimes omitted in poetry. Also when different objects are enumerated or placed in opposition to each other; as, *In robe and crown the king steps down.*

Correct the following Errors:—

Note 1.—I lent him few annas. Give him hundred rupees. Great many ships sail to-day. Thousand men made a sally. I saw one boy in one field. In the Africa there are great many lions. He is one priest.

Note 2.—A sun gives light to our earth. Viceroy went to Delhi. French were defeated at Waterloo. This was greatest of all Mogul emperors. Queen of England rules over the large part of the earth. The Socrates was wisest of Greeks. Are you studying the Sanskrit? He struck him on his mouth. He suffers from disease of his heart. Can you look him in his face? He gave me a best advice. Lion is beast of prey, like tiger. Elephant is intelligent. Mango is good fruit. Do not neglect study of the English. Can you tell me longest river in the Europe?

Note 3.—A crow alighted on a fruit tree in a garden. When an owner saw a crow on a fruit tree in a garden, he ran for gun.

Note 4.—What noise he makes in the school! The lizards eat the flies. Do you think me a foolish? No, I consider you to be a very wise. The cats kill the rats.

The Article—continued.

Note 5.—When several Adjectives descriptive of the same person or thing are connected, the Article is prefixed to the first only; as, *A brown and white cow.* When the Adjectives refer to different persons or things, the Article is used before each; as, *A brown and a white cow.*

In the phrase, "A good boy and a girl," the girl is not said to be good. In "A good boy and girl," both are good.

Note 6.—When two or more Nouns refer to the same person or thing, the Article is used with the first only; as, *Cesar, the Consul and Dictator, was killed in the Senate:* but when they refer to different persons or things, it is placed before each; as, *The Duke of Newcastle, the Commander of the Forces, and the Secretary at War, were all to blame.*

Note 7.—When two or more names referring to the same person or thing follow a comparative, the Article is used before the first only; as, *He is a better singer than dancer.* When they refer to different persons or things, the Article is used with each; as, *He is a better statesman than a soldier;* that is, “He is a better statesman than a soldier would be.”

Note 8.—When in a series of Nouns, some would require *a*, and others *an*, the Article must be repeated with each; as, *A duke, an earl, and a marquis were present;* not, *A duke, earl, and marquis.*

Note 9.—The insertion of the Indefinite Article before the Adjectives *few*, *little*, *slight*, and similar words, sometimes effects a material change of meaning; as, *He has little money,* means he has very little; *He has a little money,* means that he has, at least, some.

Note 10.—Again, the two phrases, *half a rupee* and *a half rupee* are both correct; but the meaning is different.

Correct the following Errors:—

Note 5.—A brave man and an accomplished officer published his account of the siege. A small and large bear (i.e., *two bears*) were shot. A green and a yellow bird (*one*) was caught. I bought a red and a white cow: it cost ten pounds. A red and white cow (*two, one red and one white*) are in the field.

Note 6.—The pious and the learned Newton was there. Bulwer, the novelist and the poet, declined the offer. The General, Admiral, Ambassador, and Consul, met for consultation. He has a slate, hour-glass, book, and pen. Xenophon, the historian, the warrior, and the philosopher, had few equals. The young and old, the learned and ignorant, the prince and peasant, are liable to misfortune. The Captain lost a leg and arm. Bring a pen, book, and inkholder. He is an excellent orator, and a good soldier.

Note 7.—Demosthenes was a better speaker than a soldier. Cicero was an abler philosopher than a poet. Vitellius was a more renowned epicure than an Emperor. He is more of a scholar than a divine. I consider him a greater rogue than a fool.

Note 9.—He has a few good qualities. He has few good qualities. A few men are wiser than he is. He is a good boy, but sometimes needs little correction. I have small claim against you. You have a small claim on my regard.

Position of the Article.

Rule 15.—*The Article precedes the Noun to which it belongs; as, A horse.* When the Noun is qualified by

an Adjective, the Article usually precedes both; as, *A* white horse.

EXCEPTIONS.

Note 1.—The *Indefinite Article* follows *many, such, what,* and Adjectives preceded by *too, so, as,* and *how*, as, *Many a man; so great a crowd!*

Note 2.—The *Definite Article* is placed after the Adjectives *all* and *both*; as, *All the people came; Both the soldiers were shot.*

Note 3.—The *Definite Article* follows the Noun when the Adjectives used as titles also come after the Noun; as, *Peter the Great.*

Correct the following Errors:—

A many man has done the same. Never had I seen a so large elephant before. The all money was paid. Man is noblest the work of the creation. He is much a better writer than reader. A many a man has attained independence by industry and perseverance. Do not entertain a too high opinion of yourself. I am ashamed to tell how a great mistake I have committed. Greater the part of the furniture is removed, but the all servants remain.

A such trifle deserves no thanks. That would be too dangerous attempt. He returned all books he stole. I have received from him many favour. It is too large book for him to read through. It is as large ship as his. The both brothers were drowned. The tenth Pope Leo.

THE PRONOUN.

Rule 16.—Pronouns agree with the Nouns for which they are used in Gender, Number, and Person.

As, Rama has hurt *his* hand; The lady has lost *her* glove; The scholars have neglected *their* studies.

In English, Possessive Pronouns agree in gender and number with the Nouns they stand for, and not, as in Urdu, &c., with the Nouns which follow them. My sister lost *their* books, ought to be, My sister lost *her* books.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Every good act will receive its reward. Neither he nor his friends have interested themselves in this subject. Tell that man that he must go. The rose is sweet, but it is surrounded with thorns. Were the man to acquire riches, they would corrupt his mind. The

duchess brought her son to the assembly ; but when she saw that it was too late, she fled with him, to England. He and she went away this morning, after they had visited their father.

Supply the omitted Pronouns :—

Rule.—The ships have sailed to destination. I commit these youths to your care, trusting will prove diligent. Is this the path? and does lead out of the wood? The army has gone to winter quarters. When the soldier had completed years of service was discharged. The book is not injured, though has been tossed about. The crowd was so great that I could hardly get through. When you see any one busy, do not interrupt. If the goods are ready, let me have as soon as possible. The Long Parliament it was that made war on Charles I. ; but remaining members restored Charles II.

The Pronoun—continued.

Note 1.—Thou is now seldom used except in addressing God, or in poetry. You is applied even to one person, but the Verb must be plural.

Hindi has only one Pronoun, *wah*, for *he*, *she*, *it*, and *that*, and such is also the case with some other Indian languages. In English, the distinction between *he*, *she*, and *it* must be observed.

Personal Pronouns are sometimes omitted in the Indian Vernaculars, as they are indicated by the terminations of the Verbs. In English, Personal Pronouns are mentioned except when the subject of the imperative. The Verb *came* in English would be indennite. It might mean, *I came*, *she came*, *they came*, &c. *He brought*, ought to have the object added, *it*, *them*, &c. *Here is my pen* : please mend, ought to have *it* after mend.

Note 2.—*My*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used when placed before Nouns ; as, *My book*. *Mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are used when placed after the Nouns ; as, *This book is mine*.

It may be added that the longer forms of the Possessive Pronouns are connected by *and*, but the shorter forms must not. We say, *This is yours and mine*, but we cannot say, *This is your and my*.

Note 3.—The Pronoun *it*, when the nominative to a Verb, may

be applied to each of the three persons in both numbers ; as, *It* was *I* ; *it* is *she* ; *it* was *they*.

As a general rule, use *its* or *theirs* for animate objects ; *of it* or *of their* for inanimate objects.

It sometimes introduces or represents the clause of a sentence ; as, *It* is our duty *to forgive*. The true nominative is *to forgive*. *It* is used as a Preparatory Nominative. Sometimes the reference is to a preceding phrase or clause ; as, You can tell him, but I do not advise *it* (to tell him).

It is often used for some object understood ; as, *It* (the weather) rains. He gets the worst of *it* (the business).

The Adverb *there* is used in a similar way to introduce the subject of a sentence ; as, There was once a king, &c.

Note 4.—When strong emphasis is required, both the Noun and its Pronoun may be used as nominative to the Verb ; as, *Wisdom, that is the principal thing*.

Note 5.—When two or more singular nominatives are coupled by *and*, the Pronoun representing them must be plural ; as, *He and I have settled the matter, and we shall not again disturb it*. When they are connected by *or* or *nor*, the Pronoun is generally singular ; but sometimes, when they are taken in a collective sense, it is plural ; as, *Neither he nor I was gratified by the attention we received*.

The same form of the pronoun should be preserved throughout a sentence. *Thou* and *you*, *thy* and *your*, should not be interchanged.

Note 6.—When a Pronoun represents a Collective Noun, it may be either singular or plural ; but not both in the same sentence.

Note 7.—Monarchs and editors of periodical publications generally use the plural form instead of the singular of the Pronoun, in the first person ; as, "*We* charge you."

Note 8.—The Pronoun of the third person is placed after that of the second ; and the Pronoun of the first person after those of the second and the third ; as, *You and I* will go, if they will accompany us ; Shall it be given to *you*, to *him*, or to *me* ? But in confessing a fault the speaker may place himself first.

The English consider it polite for a speaker to mention himself last. The usage is different in Urdu, &c. Attention should be directed to this rule.

Note 9.—The Interrogative Pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are used as follows :—*Who* is applied to *persons* and is *indefinite*. *Who* did it ? supposes ignorance of the person. *Which* applies both to *persons* and *things*, but to one or more out of a known number ; as, *Which* will you take ? *What* is applied to *things*, and is *indefinite* ; as, *What* do you want ? When it refers to persons, it is followed by a Noun ; as, *What* man told you ?

Note 10.—The word which answers a question must be in the same case as that which asks it; as, *Whose pen is this?* *John's.* The reason of this may be shown by completing the sentence. The full answer is, *This is John's pen.*

Correct the following Errors:—

Note 1.—You is the person who took my book. Gave. Cannot. This horse is my. That mangoes are his. Yours obedient son. My father has sold its house. This fine flowers are for you. Your pen is in my box; shall I bring? Rama is going; shall I call? My sister knows; shall I ask? Did Govind go? Went. Yours ever affectionate brother. Having said so, went away. I say so. What do say? When you have read, give to me. Sir, may I catch?

Note 2.—He is he would have betrayed me. What are those noises? They are the winds that are blowing. They should know that they are their interests we are consulting. He is the king who said it. I am I; be not afraid.

Note 5.—I told thee and him that I cared not for his friendship. Neither I nor you has done my duty. Either he or I must resign my office. Neither my brother nor cousin have been unmindful of their affairs.

Note 6.—The Court entered on the trial; they deliberated long; and it pronounced judgment only yesterday. The fleet was speedily at its destination; but they did not remain there long. The Committee has met; but the business it has to do will not occupy them long. The House of Commons were summoned to meet on Thursday, when it continued in deliberation till twelve at night, without deciding on the question before them. The meeting was dissolved soon after they assembled.

Note 8.—I and you will remain. If Tullia and you are well, I and Cicero are well. I and my father are going to England. I and you and Govind will come. I and he leave to-morrow. The teacher invited me and him.

Note 9.—Who of these boys broke it? Who did it? It was me. Which things did you bring? Them things.

Note 10.—Whose is that carriage? Sir Peter. Whom did you meet on the Esplanade? He and she. Whose poem is that? Lord Byron. From whom were the knives bought? The iron-monger's. Who counted the rupees? The writer and him.

Rule 17.—*A Relative Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person.*

As, *The man who works; the bullock which strayed.*

The Case of the Relative is determined by some word in its own sentence.

Relative Pronouns have two uses:—

1. The *Restrictive* use; as, I dare do *all that may become a man*. In this case the Relative is used to limit or define the Antecedent, which would otherwise express too much or too little.

2. The *Conjunctive* use; as, He gave me an axe, *which I found useful*. Here the Relative introduces an additional statement or co-ordinate sentence. The Relative *which* might here be replaced by *and it*. This is also called the *Co-ordinative* use of Relatives.

Note 1.—*Who* is applied to persons; *which*, to infants, inferior animals, and things without life.

That is used instead of *who* or *which*:—

1. After Adjectives in the Superlative degree; as, This is the best *that* I saw.

2. After the Adjective *all* and a few others; as, All is well *that* ends well.

3. After the Interrogative Pronoun *who*: as, *Who that* has sense will agree with him?

4. After two Antecedents, one requiring *who* and the other *which*; as, The men and the cattle *that* we met.

5. After a Noun whose gender is doubtful; as, The friend *that* you saw has left.

Bain recommends the use of *that* as the proper *Restrictive* Relative.

That, as a Relative, does not admit of a Preposition before it. If it is governed by a Preposition, the Preposition is placed at the end of the sentence; as, This is the house *that* I live *in*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Our best friends are those who tell us of our faults, and teach us how to correct them. I acknowledge that I am the teacher, who adopts that sentiment, and maintains the propriety of such measures. Choose what is most ~~fit~~, custom will make it most agreeable. Cæsar destroyed the liberty of his country, which was the cause of his death. I think it was Socrates, who, passing through the market, cried out, "How much is here I do not want!" The days that are past, are gone for ever; those that are to come, may not come to us; only the present time is ours; let us, therefore, improve it as much as possible. Is this the same person that you spoke of before?

Supply Omissions and correct Errors :—

Rule.—The boat sails. Thou knowest it.
 I speak to you. They seem to take the sun out of
 the world, take friendship out of it. Let the prize
 be given to him deserves it. This example is one
 of those are not to be imitated. Thou has
 read the account can narrate it. do you think
 was there?

Note 1.—The infant was sick has recovered. This is the
 officer commanded the party. I shall send the latest model
 I can find. Who can help himself will submit to
 such treatment? Newton is the greatest philosopher the
 country has produced. He is the same published the poem.
 The gentleman drives the finest horse you ever saw. The
 men and the measures you condemn are generally approved
 of. All exist here must soon perish.

The Relative Pronoun—continued.

Note 2.—When the Antecedent is a part of a sentence, the
 Relative is in the third person, singular number, and neuter
 gender; as, He dislikes trifles, *which* I am glad to hear.

Note 3.—Collective Nouns require *which* when they are followed
 by a Singular Verb; and *who* when followed by a Plural Verb;
 as, The faction *which* has long prevailed was overthrown; The
 clergy *who* assembled were then dispersed.

Note 4.—When no nominative comes between the Relative and
 the Verb, the Relative is generally the nominative to the Verb;
 as, *The boy who brought the book is gone.* But if a nominative
 comes between them, the Relative is generally governed in the
 objective, either by a Preposition before, or a Verb after it; as,
The boy, whom you sent for, is come.

The Relative is also often governed in the possessive by a
 noun following it; as, *Do not trust him whose promises have often
 been broken.*

Note 5.—When the Relative is preceded by two nominatives of
 different persons, the real antecedent must be learned from the
 meaning of the sentence; as, *I am the man who command;* or, *I
 am the man who commands;* the former being equivalent to, *I the
 commander am the man;* and the latter to, *I am the commander.*

Note 6.—*Which* is properly used for *who*, when the antecedent
 to the latter is repeated, or when it is asked, interrogatively, *Who*,
 of a certain number, is spoken of; as, *His former companion,*

which companion had deceived him. Which of them did it?
Which is the man?

Note 7.—The Relative in the *Objective* used *restrictively* is sometimes omitted, especially in short sentences; as, *I received the book you sent me.* The Relative must be inserted when some additional statement is made; as, *My son—whom I designed for business—was educated at home.*

The antecedent of the third person is also occasionally omitted; as, *Who will, may weep.*

Note 8.—As is used as a Relative after *such* and *same*; as, *Such as came; Mine is the same as yours.* But is a Relative when it means *that not*; as, *No child but screamed.*

Supply Omissions and correct Errors.—

Note 2.—He has resolved to be a soldier, has caused us much grief. The Queen possesses an empire on the sun never sets, can be said of no other country. He is neither over-exalted by prosperity, nor too much depressed by misfortune: you must allow, marks a great mind.

Note 3.—The Court, should have set a good example, indulged in vice. Reference was made to Parliament, who confirmed the decision. The family with I have long resided is gone to Australia. The party, he met by invitation, acted handsomely. At the levee whom Her Majesty held at St. James's there were numerous presentations.

Note 4.—He, on we relied, has deceived us. did the coach run over? He laid the suspicion on some one, I know not. Who shall we send on this errand? Men generally hate him they fear.

Note 5.—I am one who never advise such things. Give both forms of the following sentences.—Thou art the person who didst this injury, and who have formerly injured others. I am the man who drives the carriage. I am the seaman who have charge of the boat. I see thou art a scholar who possess talents, but who hast cultivated them but little. I am a teacher who adopt that sentiment, and maintains the propriety of ~~such~~ measures.

Note 6.—Who of the three was absent? What of all the ships is missing? What boy in the class did this? Who is the peon you wish to send?

Note 7.—Supply the omitted relatives or antecedents in the following examples:—He knows the man I spoke of. The poems Cicero wrote are lost. It was the saddest scene I ever witnessed. Lord Mabon wrote the History you were reading. Have you bought the book I recommended? Did you see the man I referred you to? Who lives to nature rarely can be poor. Who seizes too

rapidly drops too hastily. Who lives to fancy never can be rich. Whom he would he slew, and whom he would he kept alive.

Make three sentences with who as Relative, and three with which as Relative.

Make three sentences with that as Demonstrative, and three with that as Relative.

Position of Pronouns.

Rule 18.—*The Relative usually stands immediately after the Antecedent; as, The man who came.*

When the sense clearly shows the antecedent, other words are sometimes interposed; as, There is a prisoner, now sick, who needs your help.

It should be observed that the Relative in English follows the Antecedent, while in Urdu, &c., it precedes it. In the sentence, "The man whom I saw has left," *whom* is governed by the Verb *saw*.

Note 1.—The Objective Case of an Interrogative Pronoun precedes the Verb; as, *Whom* do you seek?

Note 3.—When there are two objects, both Pronouns, the Neuter stands first; as, Give *it* me.

Correct the Arrangement in the following Sentences:—

I sold my field for a small price, which was not very large. He has certainly shown himself not to be a friend who has done this. The lesson has brought down severe punishment on him, which was so ill prepared. He is like a beast of prey that is void of compassion. Bring me it. You call whom?

THE VERB.

Rule 19.—*Transitive Verbs govern the Objective Case; as, I found him assisting them.*

The Object of a Transitive Verb may be a Noun, a Pronoun, an Infinitive, a Gerund, or a part of a sentence; as, A hunter shot a tiger; Rama struck me; Learn to labour; He loved hunting; I acknowledged that he is right.

As a general rule, the Object should always be expressed.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

My father sent him and me to assist you. Whom do you think I met yesterday when going home? Him and

them we know, but who art thou? They who ridicule the wise and good are dangerous companions; they bring virtue itself into contempt. Cyrus, when young, being asked what was the first thing which he learned, answered, "To speak the truth." To maintain a steady and unbroken spirit of mind amidst all the shocks 'of the world, marks a great and noble spirit. They who have nothing to give, can often afford relief to others, by imparting what they feel. To see young persons who are courted by health and pleasure, resist all the allurements of vice, and steadily pursue virtue and knowledge, is cheering and delightful to every good mind. Silver and gold have I none. He is a man whom I greatly esteem.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rule.—Thou, my kind friend, I shall never forget. You should punish he who committed the fault, not I who am innocent. They who have laboured to make us wise and good we ought especially to respect. I, who have been to him like a parent, he rudely insulted. She and they I know, but who are you? They acted properly in defending themselves. She that does not guard her reputation, all prudent persons will avoid. Come, let us make a covenant, I and thou.

Verbs—continued.

Note 1.—Intransitive Verbs often take after them an Objective Case similar in meaning to the Verb; as, *He runs a race*. This is called the Cognate¹ Objective, or Accusative.

Note 2.—Nouns denoting *time, space, value, and measurement* are in the Objective; as, *He lived sixty years; I walked a mile*.

Note 3.—The Verbs *ask, forgive, offer, promise, teach, tell, &c.*, govern the Direct Object in the Objective, and the Indirect Object in the Dative; as, *I gave him a mango*.

The Passives of such Verbs usually take the *Direct Object* as their subject; as, *A mango was given to him by me*. Sometimes, however, the Indirect Object becomes the subject; as, *He was given a mango by me*.

¹ Born together; of the same kind; *con, cog, together, natus, born*.

The Verbs *appoint, believe, call, create, make, think, &c.*, govern two Objects of the same person or thing; one direct, the other factitive; as, They made him king.

Factitive¹ comes from a word meaning *to make*. A factitive object is that on which the action of the Verb produces a new condition. The Factitive Objective remains when the Verb is turned into a Passive; as, He was made king.

The Dative, or Indirect Object, comes after many Verbs. It may be known by asking the question *to or for whom or what*? Give me a pen; I made him a cage.

The Preposition *to* or *for* is usually understood before an Indirect object. Give (*to*) me a pen; I made (*for*) him a cage.

Note 4.—The Dative is used with the Impersonal Verbs, *seems, thinks, &c.*; as, *me-thinks*.

Note 5.—Some Verbs are both Transitive and Intransitive; as, *The wheel turns*; *He turns the wheel*.

Note 6.—Intransitive Verbs, as, *fall, lie, rise, sit, &c.*, must not be used for their corresponding Transitive Verbs, *fell, lay, raise, set, &c.*; as, *It lays on the table*, instead of *It lies*.

Note 7.—Some Verbs (called Preposition Verbs) must be followed by particular Prepositions; as, *He never swerves from the right path*. For examples of this, see Rule 36 regarding Prepositions.

Note 8.—The Verb *say* never takes the Objective of the *person*. Tell takes both the Objective of the *person* and the Objective of the *thing*. "He said me," should be, "He said *to* me," or "He told me."

EXERCISES.

Note 1.—Supply the appropriate Nouns in the following sentences:—All must sleep the _____ of death. Pharaoh dreamed a _____ of retirement. They sung a _____ of triumph. The drowning man looked a last despairing _____ at the shore. He died the _____ of a dog. I have fought a good _____.

Notes 2—4.—Parse the following sentences:—The city is four miles in circumference. The book cost three rupees. His father _____ six feet high. He lived three years in Calcutta. The wall is a mile long. I paid him sixteen rupees. He taught me astronomy. He refused me the favour. Tell me the truth. He showed me the picture. I was promised the appointment. They were forbidden the privilege. We were offered the carriage. The servant gave his master the letter. He denied him permission. The dwarf dealt the champion an angry blow. I forgave him the debt. Give Govind some nuts. It is not worth a rupee. Give every man his due. He sent it us. Give it me.

¹ *Facio*, to make.

Change into the Passive such of the foregoing sentences as admit of it.

Make four sentences, each containing a Verb followed by two Objective cases.

Make four sentences, each with a Dative and an Objective.

Note 5.—Form short sentences in which the following Verbs will have, in some, a Transitive, in others an Intransitive sense:—Break, burn, drink, eat, move, ride, turn, walk.

Note 6.—Give examples of the misuse of the words mentioned in the Note.

Position of the Object.

Rule 20.—*The Object is usually placed after the Verb as, Gopal struck Krishna; He wishes to learn.*

The order differs in English from that of the Indian Vernaculars. In English, the governing word usually *precedes* the word governed; in the Indian Vernaculars, it is *placed after it*. In the Indian Vernaculars the arrangement of a sentence is as follows:—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>
Gopal.	Krishna.	struck.

In English, this might mean, Gopal struck Krishna, or Krishna struck Gopal. Hence the arrangement is—1. *Subject*, 2. *Verb*, 3. *Object*.

In languages highly inflected, great freedom is allowed in the order of words. The sentence, *The lion killed the lamb* might be rendered in six different ways in Latin, with almost equal propriety. The case-ending shows which is the Subject, and which is the Object acted upon.

Leo agnum occidit. Agnum occidit leo. Occidit leo agnum.
Leo occidit agnum. Agnum leo occidit. Occidit agnum leo.*

Exceptions.—The Object precedes the Verb in the following cases:—

1. When the Object is a Relative or an Interrogative Pronoun; as, *This is the boy whom I saw; Whom do you seek?*

A Noun may be attached to the Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as, *Which book do you choose?*

2. When emphasis is required; as, *Money you shall have.*

Rule 21.—*The Verb To be has the same Case after it as before it; as, I am he; I took Rama to be him.*

Note 1.—The Verb in these forms of speech is called the *copula*, or *link*, as connecting the subject and predicate. In the Indian

* Black's *Compendious English Grammar*, page 142.

Vernaculars the copula is often omitted ; but this is not allowable in English. *My son at school*, ought to be *my son is at school*.

Nouns and Pronouns before or after the Verb *to be* are not necessarily of the same Number and Person ; as, *It was they* ; *You are he* whom we looked for.

When no case precedes the Verb *to be*, the case following it is in the Nominative ; as, *To be an honest man* is better than *to be a rich man*.

In conversation, "It is me," "It was her," &c., are often employed.

Note 2.—Some other Verbs follow the same rule ; as, *become, seem, move, walk*, &c. They are chiefly Intransitive Verbs with a complement, or Factitive Verbs in the Passive voice ; as, *She was a goddess, and she looks a queen*.

Parse the following Sentences :—

China is the most populous country in the world. Iron is the most useful metal. Were I he, I would act a different part. It could not be he whom you suppose. His death was felt to be a great loss. Pride was not made for man. The love of country is a noble feeling. The camel is found in many of the hot parts of Asia and Africa. Was it he or his brother who called ? I think it was he. The carpenter seems an industrious man. The lawyer was appointed judge.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rule.—It is her. You believed it to be he. I suppose it to have been he who told you. Believe me it was not us. Are thou proud ? Ay, that I am not thee. I know not whether it were them who committed the crime, but I am certain it was not him. It appeared to be her that opened the letter. She is the person who I understand it to have been. Who do you think me to be ? It is not me you are in love with. It was her that told you so. Let him be whom he may, we do not care.

Rule 22.—*A Verb may be put in the Infinitive Mood by another Verb, by an Adjective, and by a Noun.* As, *He loves to study ; He is not able to work ; I have a wish to learn.*

Note 1.—The simple Infinitive is treated like a Noun in the nominative or objective ; as, *To read* is pleasant (nom.) ; he began *to read* (obj.). It may also be the complement to a Finite Verb ; as, He seems *to be diligent*.

Note 2.—The Preposition *to* is not essential to the Infinitive. *To* is dropped after the auxiliaries, *can, do, may, must, shall, will*, after *bid, dare, let, make, need* ; after several Verbs referring to the senses, as, *see, behold, watch, hear, feel, &c.* In the sentence, *I shall go, go* is properly the Infinitive with *to* omitted ; *I have come, is I have (to) come*. Examples : *Bid him depart ; I dare not do it : Make them sit down ; I heard him speak*.

But, with the exception of *let*, they require *to* in the Passive Infinitive ; as, *He was seen to strike the blow ; She was bid to depart*. The Verb *to be* generally requires *to* ; as, *I see it to be so*.

Note 3.—The *Present Infinitive* may be used with any tense of the governing Verb ; as, *He wishes to go : he wished to go ; he will wish to go*.

The Perfect Infinitive expresses an action completed *before* the time denoted by the governing Verb ; as, *You seem to have fainted*.

The Perfect Infinitive used after the past tenses of Verbs expressing *wish, hope, intention, &c.*, denotes that the wish or hope was not fulfilled ; as, *I intended to have come (but was hindered)*.

Note 4.—When several Verbs in the Infinitive are coupled by a Conjunction, the sign *to* is usually prefixed to the first only ; as, *I taught him both to read and write*.

Note 5.—The Gerundial Infinitive is used to mark a purpose ; it is also used after Nouns and Adjectives ; as, *He came to see ; A time to laugh ; Swift to hear*. The Gerundial Infinitive always requires *to*, and may be considered a *Dative case*.

Note 6.—The Infinitive is changed into a Verbal Noun governed by a Preposition after the Verbs *prevent, hinder, think, despair, &c.*, and after *fond, &c.* Thus, *He hindered me to go, should be, He hindered me from going*. He is fond of reading.

Note 7.—The Infinitive is sometimes used independently ; as, *To speak plainly, I do not believe it*.

Position of the Infinitive.

The Infinitive Mood generally follows the word which governs it ; as, *He loves to learn ; I shall go*.

When the Infinitive is the emphatic word, it sometimes precedes the Verb which governs it ; as, *Do it you must*.

Parse the following Sentences:—

It is more pleasant to pardon than to punish. It is more blessed to give than to receive. England expects

every man to do his duty. They showed great anxiety to be reconciled. I was induced to grant his request. He was asked to call at another time. His willingness to obey his parents was very pleasing. His enemies declared him to be a traitor. The master prevented his servant from doing the work. I shall write to him to come to-morrow.

Correct the following Errors:—

They forced him do the work. I think to go home during the holidays. The sight made him to tremble. He is very fond to read novels. I requested him to do it, but he bade another to do it. I durst not to do anything which might displease him. You need not to ask any more. Bid the peon to procure it. Would they have us to reject such an offer? The multitude wondered when they saw the lame to walk and the blind to see. Did you feel the table to shake in consequence of the earthquake? 'I then perceived the balloon to descend into the sea.

The comets have been observed move in very eccentric orbits. Queen Elizabeth was known possess great vigour of mind. No nation has been found excel Greece in the fine arts. The prisoner was immediately let to go. We saw the lightning to flash. We are fortunate to have such good weather.

Make five sentences with an Infinitive Mood as Subject.

Make five sentences with an Infinitive Mood as Object.

Make four sentences with the Infinitive Passive without to.

Rule 23.—*The Gerund in -ing is both a Noun and a Verb. As a Noun, it is governed by a Verb or Preposition; as a Verb, it governs Nouns or Pronouns; as, Reading is pleasant; He intended killing him.*

The Gerund denotes the doing of that which the Verb signifies. As a kind of Noun, it may be the subject or object of some Verb, the complement of some Verb, or governed by some Preposition.

Note 1.—The Gerund with *to* (see Rule 22, Note 5) being a dative case, can never form either the subject or the object of a Verb. When the nominative or accusative is wanted, the Gerund in *-ing* or the ordinary Infinitive must be used.

Note 2.—Gerunds should be parsed as Nouns when they have the full construction of Nouns; admitting an Adjective or Article before them, and being followed by the Preposition *of*; as, The

smoking (Noun) of a certain number of pipes. I di-like *smoking* (Gerund).

Note 3.—When the preceeds Verbals in -ing, of must follow; or both the and of must be omitted; as, He is well placed for *the gaining of* experience; or, for *gaining* experience. In the former case, *gaining* should be parsed as a Noun; in the latter, as a Gerund.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

I hate lying. In keeping Thy commandments there is great reward. We reached the gate before him by taking a shorter road. He succeeded by begging the help of his friends. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants, and riches upon enjoying our superfluities. These travellers' tales awakened an unconquerable passion for wandering and seeking adventure. I spent the year in visiting my friends. By thinking on the passage, you will ascertain its meaning.

Correct the following Errors.—

By roaring of the lion we were kept in alarm. The preparing the statement requires time. The middle station of life seems most advantageous for gaining of wisdom. The acquiring anything valuable demands perseverance. In tracing of his history we find little that is worthy of imitation. By the observing truth you will command esteem.

When are the forms in -ing to be parsed as Nouns and when as Gerunds?

Make four sentences, each with a Gerund as Subject; and four with a Gerund as Object.

Rule 24.—*The Participle in -ing is really an Adjective, and is generally used as such; as, I hear the band playing.*

Note 1.—In being an *Adjective*, it differs from the Gerund in -ing, which is a *Noun*. It differs from an *Adjective* in having changes to show whether the action is finished or unfinished.

The Participle may be used attributively or predicatively; as, A *loving* son; My son is *loving*.

Note 2.—Imperfect Participles derived from Transitive Verbs may govern the Objective; as *Respecting ourselves*, we shall be respected by others.

Note 3.—When treated as *Adjectives*, Participles admit or

degrees of comparison ; as, We first attended to our *more pressing* wants ; This is the *most finished* picture in the collection.

Note 4.—The Participle is sometimes used absolutely with the nominative case before it, or adverbially at the beginning of a sentence ; as, The day *dawning*, we set out ; *Generally speaking*, the remainder is worthless.

Note 5.—The Participle is generally placed after the word it qualifies, differing in this from the Adjective ; as, He lay *gasping*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

He is a most loving child. Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement. Overcome by his father's kindness, he burst into tears. I hear soldiers marching, bullets flying, horses neighing. His impaired strength rendered him unequal to the exertion. Looking at the whole case, I do not take your view.

How do Gerunds and Participles differ? How do Participles differ from Adjectives?

Make five sentences each containing a Participle.

Rule 25.—*The Past Participle (not the Past Tense) should be used after the Verbs have and be, to denote complete action ; as, I have written ; He was chosen.*

Incomplete action is denoted by the Present Participle.

The Past Participle should not be used for the Past Tense ; as, He *began*, for he *began* ; He *run*, for he *ran*.

Correct the following Errors :—

He has broke his leg. He would have went with us, had he been asked. I would have wrote to him. The bullock was stole. The English language is spoke in many parts of the world. He shown me the prize. The ~~grass~~ was trod down. The work was very well execute. He drunk the water eagerly. He has chose to give up study. His friends have forsook him. The bottle is to be shook before the medicine is took.

Rule 26.—*In the use of the Tenses of Verbs, the order of time must be observed.*

The Present Indefinite has several uses :—

1. It expresses a *single* act at the present time ; as, I *see* him now.

2. It expresses custom or habit ; as, *Birds fly.*
3. It expresses constant truths ; as, *Honesty is the best policy.*
4. It is used in quoting authors, whether living or not ; as, *Cicero says.*
5. It is sometimes employed to describe past events, and is then called the *Historic Present* ; as, *Cæsar leaves Gaul, &c.*
6. It can relate to some *Future* event, provided that future time is expressed by some special Adverb or phrase, or is implied by the context ; as, *It leaves (= will leave) in a few days ; When do you sail (= will you sail) for England ?*

The **Present Imperfect**, or **Progressive**, is used to express an action going on at the time of speaking ; as, *I am writing.* It is usually applied to actions that are *continuous*, not to those that are *immediate* : as, *I tell you to go ; not, I am telling you.*

The **Present Perfect** expresses an action begun in past time and completed at the present time. "*I have lived in Calcutta five years,*" implies that the speaker is still living in Calcutta. Should he have left Calcutta, the **Past Indefinite** should be used : *I lived in Calcutta five years.* The **Present Perfect** expresses action that has just been completed ; as, *The man has come.*

The **Present Perfect** is never qualified by any Adverb or phrase denoting *past* time. The former denotes *present* time ; so that the two contradict each other. *I have finished my exercise yesterday,* should be, *I finished my exercise yesterday.*

The **Present Perfect** may be used if the effect still continues ; as, *British rule has endured in India for the last 150 years.*

The **Past Indefinite** expresses an action begun and completed in past time ; as, *He came yesterday.* It also denotes what was usual at some former time ; as, *He gambled and drank.*

The **Perfect Participle** and not the **Past Indefinite** is to be used in forming the compound tenses. Say, *To have gone ; not, To have went.*

The **Past Imperfect**, or **Progressive**, expresses an action begun and continuing in past time ; as, *While I was speaking, &c.* The **Past Indefinite** refers to a *point* of time. The **Past Imperfect** is used to express an action during which something else took place ; as, *While I was walking yesterday, I saw you.* If the latter part is omitted, the sentence should be, *I walked yesterday.*

The **Past Perfect**, or **Pluperfect**, denotes that the action was completed *before* a certain time, and before something else took place ; as, *The ship had sailed before I arrived.*

The **Past Perfect** should not be used for the **Past Indefinite**. *I had finished my letter yesterday, ought to be, I finished my letter yesterday.*

¹ Belonging to history.

The Future Indefinite expresses simply future time, near or remote; as, *It will be completed* in a few minutes; *It will take* many centuries.

The Future Perfect denotes that the action will be completed before another future action takes place; as, *I shall have sailed* before you reach Calcutta.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

The sports of children satisfy the child. He has now recovered. Truly the light is sweet. He writes a good hand. Nimrod founded Babylon. Cæsar sent this message to the Senate: "I came, I saw, I conquered." I have caught a hare. He has gone home. Yesterday we dined at two o'clock, and took tea at sunset. Fools make a mock of sin. I shall have completed it before it is required. The road ought to have been finished ten years ago. The work could not be done yesterday. Juvenal says, "The tongue is the worst part of a bad servant." Virgil says, "Labour conquers all things."

Correct the following Errors:—

The ship has arrived last week. I am speaking a long time. Yesterday I have been to the Museum. I had come to see you on Monday. This book has been printed in 1893. I have seen him an hour ago. I am suffering from fever the last three days. I have finished the work this morning. He is ill of fever since Monday. The teacher had given me leave. I have studied grammar last year. He has forsook all his wicked companions. I begun to do it. He has wore out his life in the king's service. The ancients asserted that virtue was its own reward. The doctor affirmed that fever always produced thirst. Cicero maintained that whatever was useful was good. I have written my exercise before Rama called for me. He has went to Bombay. Since you left, I was wholly engaged in business. I am not of opinion that such rules can be of much use unless persons saw them exemplified.

Explain the uses of the different Tenses. How do the Present Perfect and Past Indefinite differ? What is wrong in, "He has went to school?" When is the Past Imperfect used?

Give an example of the wrong use of the Past Perfect instead of the Past Indefinite.

Make three sentences each containing a Past Indefinite.

Make three sentences each containing a Past Perfect.

Rule 27.—*Shall with the first person, and will with the second and the third, simply foretell; will with the first person and shall with the second and the third, express the will of the speaker.*

The above is the general rule : exceptions are mentioned below.

Mistakes in the use of **SHALL** and **WILL** are very common. The following remarks should be carefully studied.

'**Shall** originally means *owe*. From the notion of debt arises that of *obligation*, what one *ought* to do.

Will means *wish*, what a person is *willing* to do.

Shall retains its primary meaning in the Second and Third Persons Singular and Plural ; as, Thou *shalt* not kill ; he *shall* surely die. Besides commanding and threatening, it also *promises* ; as, He *shall* be blessed.

Shall in the First Person Singular and Plural, simply states that something will happen ; as, I *shall* go home. It does not denote any *wish* on the part of the speaker. On the other hand, **will** in the First Person implies that the action is dependent upon the will of the speaker. I *will* go home, denotes that it is my own wish to go.

Will in the Second and Third Persons usually means simple futurity, without any reference to the wish of the agent. He *will* be punished, simply states what will happen.

The different use of **shall** and **will** is partly required by politeness. In speaking of ourselves, we avoid the appearance of making our own wish the reason why anything will happen, and therefore use *shall*. In speaking to or of others, we use *will*, to show that they are not forced to act.

I shall	We shall	} express simple futurity.
Thou wilt	You will	
He will	They will	
I will	We will	} express futurity, with the additional idea of promise, obligation, command, or threat.
Thou shalt	You shall	
He shall	They shall	

The following Poetical Rule has been given :—

In the first person, simply, **SHALL** foretells ;
In **WILL**, a *threat* or else a *promise* dwells :
SHALL in the second and the third does *threat* ;
WILL simply then foretells the future feat.

If a man falling into the water were to cry out, "I *will* be drowned, and nobody *shall* help me," his words would imply that he wished to be drowned, and refused any help. "I *shall* be drowned, and nobody *will* help me," means, I shall be drowned because no one is willing to help me.

In **Conditional** sentences, *will* is used in conditional clauses, and *will* and *shall*, with different meanings, in the other clauses; as, If you *will* seek, you *will* find; If you *will* seek, you *shall* find. The latter expression is stronger than the former.

In asking questions, *will* with the first person and *shall* with the second and the third denote mere futurity; *shall* with the first and the third person, and *will* with the second generally denote the wish of the person addressed.

Shall I ?	Shall we ?	} denote simple futurity.
Shall you ?	Shall you ?	
Will he ?	Will they ?	
Shall I ?	Shall we ?	} denote generally the wish of the person addressed.
Willst thou ?	Will you ?	
Shall he ?	Shall they ?	

Shall I go; means, *Ought* I to go? *Will* I go? means, Am I *willing* to go? This is improper, for no one can answer the question but the speaker himself. *Shall* you go? implies simple futurity. *Will* you go? means, Do you *wish* to go? *Shall* he go? means, Do you wish him to go?

Should and would follow the rules of shall and will.

A greater amount of uncertainty is expressed by *should* and *would* than by *shall* and *will*.

Should expresses a command in a milder way than *shall*. "You *shall* go," means, "I command you to go." "You *should* go," means, "It is your duty to go."

Would sometimes expresses some *habit* or act of will in past time; as, "He *would* go out every day to walk."

EXERCISES.

Give the force of *Shall* and *Will* in the following Sentences:—

I shall go to Calcutta. We will die with him. His grief will not let him sleep. They shall not have it. They will hear of nothing but money. He that will be cheated to the last, delusions shall bind him fast. If you will pay me ten rupees, you shall have the book. You shall not go there; you shall go to prison. I will leave to-morrow. If he were to make the offer, I would accept it. If he were to bid you, you should obey. Will you take me? Shall you do it? You shall be king. How shall I go?

Will you stay here with us? I shall not go alone. I will not go alone.

Correct the following Errors, giving the reason in each case.—

I will not be able to accompany you. Will I write to him? I will be obliged to dismiss him. We would be right in refusing to obey such an order. Until I will die, I shall never desert you. If he do not come, I will be uncertain what to do. I hope I will succeed.

Write three affirmative sentences, each with will in the first person.

Write three interrogative sentences, each with shall in the first person.

Rule 28.—*The Subjunctive Mood is used chiefly in suppositions or to express doubt, and after such Conjunctions as if, unless, although, &c. ; as, I shall not go if it rain.*

The Subjunctive Mood being a subjoined mood, is always dependent on some antecedent clause, called the conditional clause. The clause which contains the consequence of the supposition is called the consequent clause. "If it rain" (conditional clause), "I shall not go" (consequent clause).

The Conjunctions mentioned above are not necessarily followed by the Subjunctive. Some of them are often used with the Indicative ; as, If two and two make four. Here there is no uncertainty, and the Indicative should be used.

"If it be," means "I am uncertain." "If it is," means "as I know it is." "If it were," as I know it is not. "If I could I would," means "I cannot." "If I can, I will," means "I do not know."

The Conjunction is sometimes omitted, and the Conditional Verb placed before its subject ; as, Here I (=if I were) Govind, I should refuse.

"The present tendency of the English language," says Adams, "is to reject the distinction of the Subjunctive Mood."

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

If he were here, I would tell him. If he should try, he would succeed. If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out. Unless he pay, he will be put in prison. If I am asked whether there is any danger, I say yes. If you meet Govind, bid him make haste. Had this been true, nothing could excuse me. Love not sleep, lest thou come to want. Steal not, though thy state be mean. If thou preserve my life, it shall be devoted to thy service.

Make five sentences with Verbs in the Subjunctive Mood.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

Rule 29.—*The tense of the Verb in a dependent sentence must correspond to the tense of the Verb in the principal sentence.*

When two sentences are joined together by a Subordinative Conjunction or Relative Pronoun, one of them is called the **Principal** and the other the **Dependent** sentence. The latter is that to which the Conjunction or Pronoun is prefixed. "I was asked" (Principal) "what you said" (Dependent).

1. When the Verb in the principal sentence is in the *present* or *future* tense, the Verb in the dependent clause may be in *any tense* according to the sense.

Thus,	{	That he is sorry.
He says		That he was sorry.
or		That he has been sorry.
He will say		That he had been sorry.
		That he will be sorry.
		That he will have been sorry, &c.

2. A *past* tense in the **principal sentence** requires a *past* tense in the **dependent clause**.

He said	{	That he was sorry.
or		That he had been sorry.
He had said		That he should be sorry.
		That he should have been sorry.

Exceptions :—

Prepositions that are always true, whether referring to the past, the present, or the future, are commonly expressed in the present tense ; as, *He seemed hardly to know that two and two make four ; not, made. He will tell you that whatever is is right.* The present tense, however, sometimes becomes improper when the conjunction *that* is employed ; as, *Others said that it is Elias ;* where we must either omit *that*, or use *was* for *is*.

Parse the following Sentences :—

I thought he would fail. I ordered him to desist. He could pay if he chose. He might have gone, if he had thought fit. I said that I would have gone, if I had been able. If thou hadst given, I had been happy. I should have liked to go with him. He may either go or stay as he likes. I do not think that he will come. I did not

think that he would come. I should not be afraid if I were not guilty. If we try it at once, we shall succeed. If we tried it at once, we should succeed. It was necessary that he should find some one. I shall stay if I can. I should have stayed if I had found it desirable.

Correct the following Errors:—

I have finished my letter before my brother arrived. It is a long time since we had met. He said that he will not grant my request. I hoped he will pass. I am a candidate in the hope that I might succeed. I request that you would kindly raise my salary. I write a letter that I might have an answer. I warned him that if he did so he will incur blame. I told him that it is vain to persist in the undertaking. He was so changed that I would not have known him if he did not tell me his name. If you look at the map of India, you would find the island.

Exceptions.—Govind said that oil was lighter than water. If I should ask whether ice and water were two distinct species of things. Seneca said that to be ignorant of wickedness was a blessing. Tacitus said that those things which were unseemly were unsafe. I expected to have seen the Bank paying in gold and silver. I wished to have submitted my manuscript to him. The girl said, if her master would but have let her had money, she might have been well long ago. It is while men slept that the arch-enemy has always sown his tares. There are several smaller faults which I intended to have enumerated.

Rule 30.—*In reporting directly the speech of another, give the exact words, marking them by inverted commas ; as, Govind said, "I will go."*

When the Verb in one sentence relates what is said by some speaker in another sentence, the Verb in the first sentence is called the **Reporting Verb**, and what is said in the second sentence is called the **Reported Speech**.

The reported speech may give the *actual words* used by the speaker. This is called **Direct Narration**, and is the form generally used in the languages of India. When only the substance of the word is given, this is called **Indirect Narration**. In this case no quotation marks are used.

In *Direct Narration* the words used must be introduced by some Verb like *say, remark, &c.*

In reporting indirectly the speech of another, change the words into a form fit to be used by a different person

according to the following rules; but be very careful that the meaning is not altered.

I. The Conjunction "that" is generally inserted after the Reporting Verb. *I say, "I will do it," becomes I say that I will do it.*

There is an exception in the case of Reported Interrogations.

II. *The tense of the Reporting Verb is never changed.* If the Reporting Verb is in the present or future, the Verb in the reported speech also remains unchanged.

Direct: Govind says (or will say) "*I am right.*"

Indirect: Govind says (or will say) that he *is* right.

Direct: Govind says (or will say) "*I was wrong.*"

Indirect: Govind says (or will say) that he *was* wrong.

If the Reporting Verb is in the past tense, the Verb in the reported speech must also be in the past tense. As:—

Direct: Govind said, "*I am right.*"

Indirect: Govind said that he *was* right.

If the Direct Speech contains a past indefinite tense or a past imperfect tense, in the Indirect Speech they will generally become changed to the past perfect and the past perfect continuous, respectively.

He said, "I saw him running away," becomes He said (that) he had seen him running away. So *He said, "I was reading when she called me," becomes He said (that) he had been reading when she had called him.*

When the Reported Speech contains a statement of a universal truth the tense of the Verb must not be changed. *He said, "Honesty is the best policy," becomes He said that honesty is the best policy.*

III. With regard to the person of the Pronouns and Verbs, the following rules should be observed:—

1. Pronouns of the *first* person in the Direct Speech are put into the same person as the subject of the Introductory Verb; as,

Direct: Krishna said, *I am sick.*"

Indirect: Krishna said that *he* was sick.

2. Pronouns of the *second* person in the Direct Speech are put into the same person as the Pronoun which comes after the Introductory Verb; as,

Direct: Rama said to me, "*You are wrong.*"

Indirect: Rama told me that *I* was wrong.

Observe that *told* is used instead of *said*.

3. Pronouns of the *third* person in the *Direct* speech remain the same in the *Indirect* speech ; as,

Direct : Rama said to me, "*He* is wrong."

Indirect : Rama told me that *he* was wrong.

In the *Indirect* form *he* may refer either to Rama or to the person spoken of. To avoid this doubt, the name or designation of the person referred to must be inserted. The sentence should be "*he* (Rama)" or "*he* (the speaker)."

No change of person is required when the speech is reported to the person to whom it was first addressed ; as,

Direct : Govind said to you, "*You* are right."

Indirect : Govind told you that *you* were wrong.

EXERCISE I.

Write in the Indirect Narration the reported speech in the following sentences :—

I said to him, "The weather is stormy." I said to him, "The journey will be long." The master said to the boys, "A prize will be given to the most diligent." Pilate said, "What I have written, I have written." My brother said, "I have been very ill." His sister exclaimed, "My book has been lost." You said, "I am going." You said to me, "You and he are going." You said to him, "You are going." You say, "I am going." You say to me, "You are going." The chairman said, "My authority was publicly questioned." He replied, "I cannot admit that." He said to me, "I found your book." You say, "I will come." We say, "He will come." I said to him, "I helped you several times." We said yesterday, "We will come." I said to him, "I have much pleasure in granting your request." I said to her, "All your faults will be pardoned if you confess them." The Bible says, "The way of transgressors is hard."

Turn into the Direct Form :—

Govind said that he had read that book. The master told you that you might go. He asked what he could do to help me. The merchant said that you had ordered all these articles. John asked James to let him know what had passed. The magistrate said that he was sorry to be obliged to take such measures. He inquired what he had done the previous day. He told the peon that he had been robbed by his servant.

Rule 30—continued.

1. In questions the introductory Verbs in the *Direct* speech should be replaced in the *Indirect* by some Verb

expressing interrogation and a Conjunctive Adverb, when necessary ; as,

Direct : Govind said to me, "What do you want?"

Indirect . Govind asked me what I wanted.

Direct : Rama said to Govind, "Is this sum right?"

Indirect : Rama asked Govind whether the sum was right.

From this it will be seen that when the Verb *ask* introduces a question which requires *yes* or *no* for an answer, it must be followed, not by *that*, but by *if* or *whether*. In other cases no Conjunction follows it.

2 When a Verb in the imperative mood has to be changed into the indirect narration, consider whether it expresses a command or an entreaty or simply a friendly address, and substitute for the Reporting Verb one which conveys the idea expressed by the imperative.

The master said to his servant, "Do the work," becomes, The master ordered (commanded or told) his servant to do the work.

The beggar said to the gentleman, "Help me to get some employment," becomes, The beggar entreated (or prayed or begged) the gentleman to help him to get some employment. My friend said to me, "Consider my work and say what you think of it," becomes, My friend asked me to consider his work and say what I thought of it. He said to him, "Stop a moment," becomes, He asked him to stop a moment.

3. A question and a command are often combined in one speech.

Direct : He said to him very angrily, "Why have you come? Have I not told you never to see my face again? Leave the room."

Indirect : He asked him very angrily why he had come, and whether he had not told him never to see his face again, and he ordered him to leave the room.

4. The Reporting Verb may need to be similarly changed in a few other instances.

Direct : Turning to his friend he said, "And thou, too, farewell."

Indirect : Turning to his friend he bade him, too, farewell.

Direct : I said to him, "Here, take your book."

Indirect : I called to him to take his book.

Direct : He said, "Alas, how foolish I have been."

Indirect : He exclaimed with sorrow that he had been very foolish, or, He acknowledged with sorrow how foolish he had been.

Direct: He said to him, "Please lend me that book a moment."

Indirect: He asked him kindly to lend him that book a moment.

Direct: He said, "Let us divide the booty amongst ourselves."

Indirect: He proposed that they should divide the booty amongst themselves.

Direct: He said to me, "I thank you for all you have done."

Indirect: He told me that he thanked me for all I had done; but more idiomatically, he thanked me for all I had done.

Direct: He said, "Ha, my fine fellow! I will have you hanged."

Indefinite: He called him a fine fellow, and said (that) he would have him hanged.

Interjections, Vocatives, &c., that can only be used in addressing one directly, are left out in Indirect speech.

EXERCISE II.

Turn the following into the Indirect Narration:—

He said to him, "Where are you going?" He said to me, "Which is the book you like best?" He said to her, "Do you know all the subjects for the examinations?" I said to him at once, "Who told you that?" I said to him, "Why did you put yourself in danger?" The king said to his attendants, "Bring to me all the traitors you captured, and put them to death before they have time to escape." He said, "How unlucky we all appear to be!" He said, "Let us each try to help the man a little." The beggar said to the lady, "Pity the sorrows of a poor old man whose trembling limbs have borne him to your door." The beggar took the money from her saying, "May God reward you!" I said to them, "Let us do nothing till we have heard the king's reply." I said to him, "Thank you, I shall not need any more help." The governor said to them in reply, "Thank you for all the information you have given me. I quite expected you would address me on this subject, and I will bear the matter in mind. Send me a petition on my return to Madras."

Rule 30 (continued).—Words indicating nearness of time or place in relation to the speaker must generally be changed when another person reports the speech.

Thus *now* becomes *then*; *this* becomes *that*; *here* becomes *there*; *ago* becomes *before*; *thus* becomes *in that way*.

Direct: I said to him, "Do it now."

Indirect: I told him to do it then.

Direct: He said to me, "I finished the work a long while ago." He told me that he had finished the work a long while before.

Similarly change *to-day* into *that day*, *to-mor-row* into *the next day*, *yesterday* into *the day before* (or *the previous day*), *last night* into *the night before* (or *the previous night*, &c., &c.).

The cases in which this rule is not to be applied will be easily found out if you are careful not to alter the meaning of the speaker. Thus

Whenever the words of the speaker are reported at the same time or place at which they were spoken, the above words are not changed.

Direct: Rama said to me, "I will come to-day."

Indirect: Rama told me he would come to-day, *if I quote these words to another person on the same day on which they were spoken; but if I quote them on any other day I must say,*

Rama told me he would come that day.

Similarly there may be cases in which *come* should be changed into "*go*."

Direct: He said to me, "Come here."

Indirect: He told me to come here, or

He told me to go there, *according to the position of the speaker.*

The following examples should be studied:—

Direct: He said to me, "Did you steal the book?" I replied "No."

Indirect: He asked me whether I had stolen the book. I said I had not, or I denied it, or I answered in the negative.

Direct: He said to me, "Will you do it now?" I replied "No."

Indirect: He asked me if I would do it then. I refused, or I said I would not.

Direct: He said to me, "Would you like to go?" I said "Certainly."

Indirect: He asked me if I should like to go. I said I certainly should.

EXERCISE III.

Turn the following into the Indirect Narration:—

He said to me, "Why are you troubling me now? Go home. I will see you this evening." He said to us, "I am sorry that I failed to see you yesterday, but I shall undoubtedly be at leisure to-morrow." He said to them, "Do it thus: if you fail the first time, try again; you will certainly succeed at last." He said to me, "Thank you for all your help. I should not have finished the work till to-morrow unless you had been here." They replied,

"Go to the master now; we shall certainly tell you nothing until you have seen him." My father said, "Have you finished your lesson yet, my boy?" "No," I replied; "this lesson is very difficult. I was trying to do it yesterday, but did not succeed." "Never mind," said my father, "you will be all the better for trying even if you do not succeed."

Correct the following Errors:—

The teacher told you sit down. The master told that I will let the boys go home. I told him to ask his master can I see. I said him to come with me. He said me go. He told that I will come. I heard him to ask her that why you not run away? I told her that she do not open the door. I said that why you were not diligent? Govind said that we are to stay here.

Turn the following into the Direct Narration:—

He said that his mother was just then absent from home, but that I should not on that account defer my visit, as she would without doubt return in a few days.

The young officer said that he was as old as the prime minister of England, and thought himself as capable of commanding a ship as that minister was of governing the state.

He asked me when I intended to leave Calcutta. I told him that as that was the day of examination, I could not leave then; but hoped to do so next day.

Reported Exclamation.

When the Reported Verb contains an exclamation of some kind, the Reporting Verb "say" or "tell" must be changed to some such Verb as "exclaim," "pray," &c., suited to the context; as, He said, "*May God forgive me!*" Indirect, He *prayed* that God *would* forgive him.

INTERMEDIATE FORMS OF NARRATION.

In addition to the Direct and Indirect Forms of Narration, there are others of an intermediate character.

The first Intermediate Form is distinguished from the Indirect Form merely by the insertion of quotation marks. The actual words are given, with no change but the necessary ones in Verb and Pronoun.

The second Intermediate Form reports the actual words, but without inverted commas.

The third Intermediate Form differs from the Indirect in omitting the Verbs *said*, *asked*, &c., introducing the clauses of the reported speech.¹

¹ Abridged from Rowe and Webb.

Rule 31.—*To form a Negative¹ Sentence, put not between the Auxiliary and the Principal Verb; as, I do not like him.*

The above is the usual form. In some cases, especially in poetry, *not* is placed after the Verb; as, He spoke *not* a word; he is *not* here.

The Negative precedes the Infinitive; as, I told him *not* to be afraid.

In modern English two Negatives are equal to an affirmative; hence, when negation is intended, one Negative is sufficient.

In the time of Shakespeare two Negatives were allowable; as,

"I never was *not* *never* will be false."

The Negative and Interrogative Forms are combined by placing the Nominative and *not* after the Auxiliary; as, Do *we not* love? When there is no Auxiliary, they are placed after the Verb; as, Love *we not*?

When the answer to a question is *yes* or *no*, put *not* either *before* or *after* a Personal Pronoun Nominative and *before* a Noun Nominative; as,

Have *not* I paid you? Yes, you have. No, you have *not*.

Have I *not* paid you? Yes, you have. No, you have *not*.

Is *not* this claim unjust? Yes, it is. No, it is *not*.

The second form, Have I not paid you? is considered more emphatic than the first.

If the answer to be given is *yes*, the Verb following must be in the *affirmative*.

If the answer to be given is *no*, the Verb following must be in the *negative*.

An affirmative Verb must never come after *no*; a negative Verb must never come after *yes*.

Parse the following Sentences:—

I had not written. You were not going. I shall not be leaving for some time. We did not wish them to come. Shall you not go? Am I not doing my best? I have not seen him. I do not know the man. Is he not coming to-morrow? May he not go with us? I was not going to take him. Had I not seen it, I should not have believed it. Shall you not be writing? No, I shall not. Have you forgotten your exercise? No, I have not.

Correct the following Errors:—

Why you not write to me? Did you not tell him? Yes, I did not. Is you father sick or not? Did he not meet you yesterday?

¹ Denying; *nego*, to deny.

Yes, he did not meet me. Why you not go away? Why they will not come? Can the boy not read? Yes, he cannot.

Turn the following Sentences into the Negative Form:—

I am hopeful. They are going home. He sent the horse yesterday. The king is jealous of his prime minister. This is well written. I had intended to go. He was killed in the battle. My brother wrote that. Do you understand the question? Have you money? I received your letter.

THE ADVERB.

Rule 32.—Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs; as, He acts nobly; This is very large; He ran too quickly.

A phrase or clause has often the force of an Adverb; as, I left him *in the garden*; We gained ground *step by step*; *When I came* he told me. Such expressions are called **Adverbial Clauses**, because they modify the Verbs to which they are attached.

Note 1.—Adjectives should not be used as Adverbs, nor Adverbs as Adjectives; as, *Sweet* sung, for, *Sweetly* sung; He spoke very *mean* of him, for, He spoke very *meanly* of him.

Note 2.—Adjectives are sometimes used as Adverbs. In old English the Adverb was often formed from the Adjective by adding *e*; as, soft, softly. The *e* was dropped, and then both had the same form. Loud, hard, fast, long, high, wide, much, little, &c., are both Adverbs and Adjectives. The manner in which they are used determines to which part of speech they belong.

Note 3.—Some Adjectives qualify the Noun or Pronoun *through* the Verb; as, Rama looks *pale*; it sounds *grand*. After Verbs of *being* and *seeming* the Adjective is used predicatively.

With Transitive Verbs Adverbs should be used; as I received him *warmly*. In the following examples the meaning differs according to the part of speech used:—

I found the road *easy*, *i.e.*, not difficult to walk on.

I found the road *easily*, *i.e.*, found it without difficulty.

Note 4.—Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative (often a weak one); as, *It is not unjust*.

Note 5.—Some Adverbs are followed by corresponding Adverbs; as, Here—there; where—there; when—then; never—nor; rather—than; not only—but also, &c.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

The inhabitants fought very bravely; but their enemies were so greatly superior in numbers, that they were speedily compelled to

retreat. This exercise is neatly and correctly written. The force of instinct is very strongly shown by the mode in which many birds build their nests. There cannot be anything more insignificant than vanity. As you say so, I shall go. Unless you try, you will not succeed. He is industrious, and consequently he is successful. Always try to speak distinctly. I may be away, but I cannot tell yet.

Correct the following Errors :--

The garden is ill laid out, but the situation is remarkable good. If the letter is not bad written, send it. He speaks very beautiful. Newton lived in a manner agreeably to the dictates of piety. No man could have acted nobler. I am wonderful delighted with it. Suitably to his condition was the behaviour he always exhibited. The river flows rapid. The youth has been careful brought up. He acts very sensible on most occasions; but he behaved most meritorious on the last.

Note 4.—The speech did not afford no information. It is not no uncommon thing. He affirmed that he would not on no account grant the request. I have not done nothing that should bring blame upon me. I cannot remember nothing about it. Nothing never affects me like that. Has not nobody never seen nothing of a bat of mine nowhere?

The Adverb—continued.

Adverbs should be used according to their meaning.

Some mistakes which are common in India may be noticed.

Too is often used for *very*. When *too* qualifies an Adjective it denotes that a thing is under or over the proper standard. *Very* does not imply any such limit. I hope we shall have *too* much rain soon, means a wish for more rain than would be good for the country. *Very* should be used for *too*.

Much is sometimes used for *very*; as, This coat was *much* dear, instead of *very* dear. *Very* is generally used with Adjectives in the *Positive* degree, and *much* with Adjectives in the *Comparative*; as, this was *much* dearer. *Very* may be prefixed to *much*; as, This was *very much* dearer. *Very* and *much* are both used with Adjectives in the *Superlative*, with a slight difference of meaning; as, He got *much* the best; He got the *very* best. Observe that the article *follows much* and *precedes very*.

Sometimes should not be used for *perhaps*. Sometimes means *now and then*; *perhaps*, it may be *possibly*. Sometimes my letter has not reached you, should be, *Perhaps* my letter, &c.

Before should not be used for *ago*. I saw him three months *before* should be, three months *ago*. *Before* is not used with a

period of time. But we can say, He will come *before* the end of the year.

Since, as an *Adverb*, signifies *from now*. It stands after the word or words which it qualifies ; it is preceded by a Verb in the *Past Indefinite* tense, and it is placed after a Noun or phrase denoting some *period* of time, never after a Noun denoting some *point* of time ; as, I left school three years *since* (= from now).

Ago has the same meaning as the *Adverb since*, and is used in the same way ; as, I left school three years *ago* (= from now).

No should not be used for *not*. I have no any money, should be, I have *not* any money, or *no* money.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

You have given me too much. It is a month since he wrote to me. Perhaps I may leave to-morrow. I have been very busy since Tuesday. Sometimes you are careless. He left for England a year ago. Perhaps it will rain. Rama's exercise is fair ; that of Govind is much inferior ; but that of Krishna is much the worst. This is very much better than that. You will be a little vexed at this little matter.

Correct the following Errors :—

It is too much good. I am all well. It is too hot. I saw him three week's before. At hearing that he got much anger. He was ill since three days. Boys are not intelligent as girls. I did not go to town since three weeks. He went two days before. Since four months I went to school daily. I am sick now from a fortnight. He returned home before two months. I bought it since three months. As he has not written, sometimes he may have left. He will likely answer soon. He says that he is no able to do it.

Make sentences each containing one of the following words : too, very, since, much, sometimes, perhaps, ago, not.

POSITION OF THE ADVERB.

Rule 33.—*Adverbs are generally placed close to the words which they qualify ; as Very good ; He acted wisely.*

Adverbs are usually placed :—

1. Before Adjectives or other Adverbs ; as, *very* good ; *very* *badly* written.
2. After Intransitive Verbs ; as, I laughed *heartily*.
3. Usually after the Object of a Transitive Verb ; as, He paid

them *liberally*. Sometimes the Adverb is placed before the Verb ; as, He willingly granted their request.

The Adverb should not separate the Verb and its objective. Say, He told his tale *pleasingly* ; not, He told *pleasingly* his tale.

4. Between the principal Verb and the last of its Auxiliaries ; as, Fine friends may be *always* bought with money.

5. When an Adverb qualifies a whole sentence or is used emphatically, it is generally placed first ; as, *Unfortunately*, he had excited the Queen's displeasure ; *Never* was a man so used.

6. The Adverbs *always*, *never*, *often*, *sometimes*, are usually placed before the Verbs they qualify, except the Verb *To be* : as, *He always* uses the purest style ; *He often* talks foolishly ; *He is never* at home. *Enough* follows the word it qualifies ; as, Good *enough*.

7. Without great care in placing the Adverb properly, a wrong meaning may be given to a sentence, or it may be rendered ambiguous.¹ *Only* requires special attention. It is *generally* placed immediately *before* the word it qualifies.

In the sentence "He *only* lived for their sakes," the meaning is that he did not do any other thing for their sakes. "He lived *only* for their sakes," means that he lived for this one reason. "He lived for their sakes *only*," means not for a nobler reason. *Only* at the end of a sentence often has a disparaging² signification. "He gave a rupee *only*," implies that more may be expected.

EXERCISES.

Correct the following Errors :—

The master taught very well the boy. He renounced for ever his country. They intended to carry farther their operations. Melville proposed to invite back the king. Nelson attacked most courageously the enemy's fleet.

We must not expect to find study agreeable always. The field, having been tilled often, will yield a good crop. Men's views are strangely altered by skilful hints sometimes.

Rama very slowly walks. The following sentence cannot but be possibly understood. I hope not much to tire those whom I shall not happen to please. They proposed to share equally the fruit. These opinions have been held generally in every age.

I am only left. England has only possessions in South Africa. Italy has every gift of God, not freedom only. He is cautious not to give offence properly. He is seldom or ever in his place. It is not my intention to compel, but to advise you. He only regards not his health, but his reputation. I will not go be he never so pressing.

Give the different meanings of the following sentences :—Only he

¹ Having more than one meaning, *ambig*, about ; *ego*, to drive.

² Lowering ; *dis*, not ; *par*, equal.

promised a book. He only promised a book. He promised only a book. He only lived for their sakes. He lived only for their sakes. He lived for their sakes only.

THE PREPOSITION.

Rule 34.—Prepositions govern the Objective Case ; as, He went *from* Madras *to* Calcutta.

Note 1.—Prepositions generally stand before the words they govern.

The rule in the Indian vernaculars is the reverse.

Note 2.—Prepositions should be placed as near as possible to the words they govern.

Exceptions.—In Interrogative and Relative sentences in familiar style, the Preposition is often placed at the end ; as, What could it proceed *from* ? This is the person whom I gave it *to*.

The Preposition is most frequently placed at the end when the Relative is omitted ; as, It was a thing I was used *to* (*to which* I was used). It must also be placed at the end when *that* is used for *whom* ; as, The person *that* I gave it *to*.

In dignified language, the Preposition is placed before the Pronoun ; as, *Under what* captain *serve* you ?

The Objective is sometimes placed first for emphasis ; as, Such conduct I am at a loss to account *for*.

Note 3.—Prepositions sometimes form compounds with Verbs ; as, *to smile at, to pick up, &c.* Such expressions should be parsed as *Prepositional Verbs*.

Note 4.—When two Prepositions refer to one Noun, place the Noun after the first, and the Pronoun representing it after the second ; as, *I went to the chair and sat down on it* ; not, *I went to, and sat down on, the chair*.

Note 5.—Adverbs often qualify Prepositions ; as, *out from, &c.* The two words may be considered as a Compound Preposition.

Note 6.—The Prepositions *for, from, in, on,* are often omitted before Nouns of place and time ; as, I will cause it to rain (*for*) forty days.

Note 7.—Prepositions should not be inserted where they are not wanted.

The word *to* is often omitted in English when used in the Indian vernaculars. He told *to* me, ought to be, He told me.

Note 8.—Prepositions should not be omitted where Syntax requires them. I wish to go England, should be, I wish to go *to* England. I came to speak you, ought to be, I came to speak *to* you. I can depend your promise, ought to be, I can depend *upon* your promise.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

To whom did you give the letter which I sent? Paper did not come into use until the twelfth century. Temperance, by fortifying the mind and body, leads to happiness. If we view ourselves, with all our imperfections and failings, in a just light, we shall rather be surprised at our enjoying so many good things, than discontented, because there are any which we want. Be not overcome by the injuries you meet with, so as to pursue revenge; by the disasters of life, so as to sink into despair; by the evil examples of the world, so as to follow them into sin. Overcome injuries by forgiveness; disasters, by fortitude; evil examples, by firmness of principle. When will you go to Calcutta? Come out from among them. With whom are you in company? To whom were you talking when I came? I am out of breath.

Correct the following Errors:—

Rule.—She I am pleased with, but not with he. We are all accountable, each for himself. Except thou, I have none to help me. He laid the blame on some one, I know not who of the party. They gladly of themselves made up the ransom. Between you and I there is much mischief in it.

Notes.—Is it me you mean to compare him with? The Turks were the next people who the Russians made war against. You surely know not who you speak to. He returned to, and locked himself up in, his house. He is wholly unacquainted with, and consequently incapable of explaining, the principles of the Art. One of the conspirators wrote to, and informed the Emperor of, the daring scheme.

Give me a little of salt. He was of twelve years. Throw a little of water. I failed in last December. My father regretted for my leaving. I will go on to-morrow. Listen what I tell you. There is no use of talking. He harassed to his master. He refused to alter from his decision. My brother went Bombay. He minded to all my affairs. Tell to me your name. I saw him in this week. Send to me some money, He did not obey to their advice. He showed favour upon me. This horse is worth for forty rupees. You cannot give answer for that.

Rule 35.—*Prepositions should be used according to their meaning.*

Some directions may be given; but much acquaintance with English literature¹ is required to secure accuracy.

1. *In* is used before the names of countries, districts, and large cities; *at*, before the names of foreign cities, small towns and villages; *as*, He is *in* England; *in* Calcutta; He lives *at* Serampore *in* Bengal. We may say, He is *at* school or *in* school,

† The books of a country; *lit'ara*, a letter.

2. To is used in expressions like, He went *to* Calcutta. In the sentence, Ceylon lies *to* the south of India; *to* denotes that Ceylon is *beyond* India. Travancore is *to* the south of India, should be *in* the south of India.

3. With often denotes the *instrument*, and *by*, the *doer*; as, This was written *by* me *with* a quill.

4. Since, as a Preposition, signifies *from*. It is placed before a Noun or phrase denoting *some point* of time, never before a Noun or phrase denoting a *period* of time. It is also preceded by a Verb in the *Present Perfect Tense*; as, The school has been closed *since* May. I am unwell *since* three weeks, should be, I *have been* unwell *for* three weeks. But *since* is correctly used when we speak of an interval between a past fixed point of time and the present time; as, I have been unwell *since* Friday.

5. At, like *since*, denotes a *point of time*; in, a *portion of time*; as, He left *at* six o'clock; He will come *in* the evening. *In* an hour, means at the end of an hour; *within* an hour, before the end of an hour.

6. For (in the sense of *during*) denotes a *portion of time*. It may be used with any Tense except the Present Imperfect: I am studying English *since* two years, ought to be, I have been studying English *for* two years.

8. From, denoting a *point of time*, may be used with *all* the Tenses, but must be followed by *to*, *till*, or *until*, as, I attended *from* the 1st *to* the 20th of this month.

Position of Prepositions.

Prepositions, as their name implies, are usually placed *before* the words they govern; as, Come *to* me.

Exceptions.

1. When the object is an *Interrogative* or *Relative Pronoun*; as, *What* are we going *to*?

2. When the *Relative* is omitted; as, We should use the reason we are born *with*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Rain fell during the night. Is he at home? I am going to Japan. I have not seen him for three months. A battle was fought at Plassey. I have had fever for six days. He has attended college for three years. He started at the same time that I did. He will kill you with the sword. I have been here for a fortnight. I have not met him since Friday. Cochin is in the south of India. Tibet is to the north of India. Did you go to office to-day? The sun has been shining for three hours. I was present from three to four in the afternoon. The holidays will end in a week. He

will come in the evening. He went away in the morning. I must go by train this evening. You have not been here for a long time.

Correct the following Errors.—

He went in Madras. He was kicked with his horse. They spent six months at Bengal. I am sick from three weeks. He lives at London. I have not seen him from a long time. Come after a week. My father has gone at Bangalore. I cut it by a knife. Is Ceylon in the south or west of India? I am a candidate from four months. When you wrote upon your uncle? On his arrival to India, he went at Poona. It rained at morning time. The giraffe is found at South Africa. Friday evening he will leave for the Bombay. I send you this letter with Govind. He was killed with him by a spear. The whole island was overrun with the invaders. It is after a long time that you have come to school.

Write sentences each containing one of the following words:—
With, in, at, since, for, from, within.

*Explain the difference in meaning between the following sentences —*He reached England at the same time as I did, and, He reached England in the same time as I did.

Rule 36.—*Certain words and phrases must be followed by particular Prepositions.*

Some words are followed by different Prepositions to express different meanings. Examples of some of the principal are given below.

Abhorrence of deceit	Acquaint with a person or thing
Abhorrent to the feelings	Acquiesce in a decision
Abide by a statement	Acquit of blame
Abound in, with—expedients	Adapted to a thing
Absent from school	„ for a purpose
Absolve from a promise	Addicted to opium
Absorbed in thought	Adequate to a want
Abstain from food	Adhere to a purpose
Accede to a request	Adjacent to the city
Accept of a favour	Admiration of a person
Acceptable to a person	Admit of excuse
Access to a house	Admonished of a fault
Accompanied by a friend	person
Accord with (neuter), to (active)	Adorn with flowers
Accordance with the rules	Advantage of his absence
According to promise	„ over his opponent
Accountable to his master for the money	Adverse to the proposal
Accuse of crime, by any one	Affection to, for
Accustomed to teaching	Affinity to, between
	Afflicted with blindness

- Afraid *of* punishment
 Agree *among* themselves
 " *to* a proposal
 " *with* his wife
 Agreeable *to* one's wishes
 Agreement *between* them
 Aim *at* a bird
 Akin *to* pity
 Alarmed *at* the sight
 Alien *to* the subject
 Alienate *from* a friend
 Alight *from* a horse ; *on* the
 ground ; *at* the door.
 Alive *to* the risk
 Alliance *with* a party
 Allied *to* a thing
 " *with* a person
 Allotted *to* each
 Allowable *for* a person
 Allude *to* his conduct
 Alternate *with* his brother
 Amazed *at* a proposal
 Ambitious *of* glory
 Amount *to* a hundred
 Angry *at* a thing, *with* a per-
 son
 Annoyed *at* a thing
 " *with* a person
 Apprise *of* an event
 Answer *to* a person
 " *for* his neglect
 Antidote *against* poison
 Antipathy *to*, *against*
 Anxious *for*, *about*—his safety
 Apart *from* the company
 Appeal *to* the High Court
 " *against* the decision
 Apply *to* a person, *for* a thing
 Appoint *to* a situation
 Apprehensive *of* danger
 Apprise *of* his loss
 Appropriate *to* the occasion
 Approve *of* his conduct
 Arrive *at* a place, *in* a carriage
 Ascribe *to* him the honour
 Ashamed *of* his conduct
 Ask *for* a thing ; *from* or *of* a
 person
 Assent *to* a proposal
 Associate *with* a person or thing
 Assure him *of* safety
 Astonished *at* his impudence
 Atone *to* a person, *for* a fault
 Attend *to* (listen) *upon* (wait)
 Attendance *at* court
 Attendance *upon* a person
 Attentive *to* a teacher
 Avail oneself *of* the chance
 Averse *to* (feeling), *from* (state)
 Avert danger *from* a person
 Aware *of* his intention
 Backward *in* learning
 Banish *from* the country
 Bare *of* clothes
 Bathe *in* water
 Bear *with* a person
 Beg *of* a person
 " *for* bread
 Believe *in* his truthfulness
 Belong *to* a person
 Bent *on* going
 Bereaved *of* his wife
 Beset *with* danger
 Bestow a thing *upon* a person
 Betray *to* the enemy
 Betray *into* his hands
 Beware *of* the dog
 Blame *for* failure
 Blind *to* his danger
 " *of* an eye
 Blush *at* the sight
 " *for* his conduct
 Boast *of* skill
 Borrow *of*, *from*—a friend
 Bound *in* honour
 " *by* every tie
 Buy a thing *of* a person
 Call *upon* him, *at* his house, *for*
 the money, *on*, *out*, &c.
 Capable *of* designs

Capacity *for* thought
 Care *for* his life
 Care *of* your books
 Careless *of, about*—the result
 Carp *at* the answer
 Catch *at* a straw
 Caution *against* the cheat
 Cautious *of* fire
 Cavil *at* his speech
 Cede *to* Germany
 Celebrated *for* bravery
 Certain *of* success
 Charge him *with* crime
 Charge the cost *to* him
 Cheat a person *of* his money
 Cleanse *from* sin
 Clear *of* debt
 Close (adj.) *to* the river
 Close (verb) *with* the offer
 Coincide *with* his opinion
 Combine *with* the enemy
 Commit *to* memory
 Committed *against* the law
 Common *to* old and young
 Compare *with* (quality), *to* (likeness)
 Compatible *with* safety
 Compensate him *for* his work
 Compete *with* him *for* a prize
 Competent *for* the office
 Complain *of* a person or thing
 „ *to* a person, *against* a person
 „ *about* a person or thing
 Comply *with* a request
 Composed *of* metal
 Conceal *from* view
 Concerned *at, about*—an event
 „ *for* his safety
 „ *in* the crime
 Concur *with* a person
 „ *in* an opinion
 Condemned *to* death *for* murder
 Condole *with* a person
 Conduce *to* health
 Confer *with* a person *about* a thing

Confer a favour *on* men
 Confess *to* a fault
 Confide *in, to*—a person
 Confident *of* victory
 Confined *to* bed
 Confirmed *in* the appointment
 Conformable *to* rule
 Confront a person *with* his accusers
 Congenial *to* one's tastes
 Congratulate him *on* his marriage
 Connect *with* what goes before
 Connive *at* a crime
 Consent *to* the plan
 Consequent *upon* the proceeding
 Consist *of* metal
 Consist *in* causes or results
 Consonant *to, with*
 Consult *with* your father
 Contend *with, against*
 Content *with* his pay
 Contrary *to* his orders
 Conversant *with* persons
 Converse *with* a person *on* a subject
 Convince *of* error
 Copy *from* a book
 Correspond *with* a person *about* a person or thing
 „ *to* an object
 Count *on, upon*—your coming
 Cure a person *of* a disease
 Deaf *to* advice
 Deal *with* a person
 „ *in* rice, sugar
 Decide *on, upon*—a plan
 Defective *in* strength
 Defer *to* his opinion
 Deficient *in* sense
 Deformed *in* body
 Defraud a person *of* his dues
 Delight *in* his company
 Delighted *with* the offer
 Demanded *of* a person

Demur <i>to</i> the charge	Effective <i>for</i> war
Depart <i>from</i> a place	Elicit <i>from</i> a person
Depend <i>upon</i> one's efforts	Eligible <i>for</i> office
Deprive a person <i>of</i> a thing	Embittered <i>against</i> his opponent
Derived <i>from</i> Sanskrit	Emboldened <i>by</i> success
Derogate <i>from</i> one's reputation	Eminent <i>for</i> skill
Derogatory <i>to</i> one's good name	Emulous <i>of</i> fame
Descriptive <i>of</i> the place	Enamoured <i>of</i> a person, <i>with</i> a thing
Deserving <i>of</i> praise	Encouragement <i>to</i> virtue
Designed <i>for</i> use	Encroach <i>on, upon</i> —the land
Desirous <i>of</i> gain	Endeared <i>to</i> a person
Desist <i>from</i> the chase	Endeavour <i>after</i> failure
Despair <i>of</i> success	Endowed <i>with</i> beauty
Destitute <i>of</i> food	Endued <i>with</i> virtue
Destructive <i>of</i> happiness	Engage <i>in</i> business, <i>to</i> a person
Determine <i>upon</i> going	Engraved <i>on</i> brass
Detract <i>from</i> his good name	Enjoin <i>upon</i> a person
Devolve <i>on, upon</i>	Enlarge <i>upon</i> the subject
Die <i>of</i> hunger, <i>by</i> the sword	Enlist <i>in</i> the army
Differ <i>from, with</i> —a person	Enter <i>upon</i> a course, <i>into</i> one's views
Difference <i>between</i> things	Entitled <i>to</i> a seat
Difficulty <i>in</i> an attempt	Enveloped <i>in</i> fog
Diligent <i>in</i> business	Envious <i>of</i> his success
Diminution <i>of</i> comfort	Envy (noun) <i>at</i> his success
Disagree <i>with</i> a person	Equal <i>to</i> the other
Disagreeable <i>to</i> a person	Escape <i>from</i> jail
Disappointed <i>of</i> a thing, <i>in</i> a thing	Essential <i>to</i> health
Disapprove <i>of</i> conduct	Estimated <i>at</i> its proper worth
Discharge <i>from</i> service	Exact payment <i>from</i> a person
Discourage <i>from</i> an attempt	Excel <i>in</i> drawing
Discouragement <i>to</i> virtue	Except (verb) <i>from</i> payment
Dislike <i>to</i> labour	Exception <i>to</i> a rule, <i>against</i> a person
Dispense <i>with</i> his help	Exchange horses <i>with</i> me
Displeased <i>with</i> his servant	Excluded <i>from</i> society
Dispute <i>with</i> a person <i>about</i> a thing	Exclusion <i>of</i> above mentioned
Dissent <i>from</i> an opinion	Excuse a person <i>for</i> non attendance
Distinct <i>from</i> the other	Excuse <i>for</i> absence
Distrustful <i>of</i> his courage	Exempt <i>from</i> duty
Divide <i>between</i> two, <i>among</i> many	Expel <i>from</i> school
Doubt <i>of</i> one's honesty	Expensive <i>in</i> dress
Due <i>to</i> want of care	Exposed <i>to</i> danger
Eager <i>in, for, with</i>	Expostulate <i>with</i> a person
Easy <i>of</i> approach	Extricate <i>from</i> his grasp

Exult <i>in</i> his gain	Hurtful <i>to</i> progress
„ <i>over</i> a person	Hush <i>up</i> the tale
Fail <i>in</i> one's purpose	Ignorant <i>of</i> a design
„ <i>of</i> success	Ill <i>of</i> fever
Fall <i>under, from, on, upon, into</i>	Illustrative <i>of</i> the subject
Familiar <i>with</i> the book	Immersed <i>in</i> pleasure
Fatal <i>to</i> his life	Impatient <i>of</i> control
Favourable <i>to</i> his wishes	„ <i>for</i> payment
Favoured <i>with</i> your company	„ <i>at</i> delay
Fawn (verb) <i>upon</i> a person	Impelled <i>by</i> pride
Feed <i>on</i> grass	Impertinent <i>to</i> his teacher
„ <i>with</i> corn	Impose <i>upon</i> a person
Feel <i>for</i> the poor	Impress a thing <i>upon</i> a person
Fertile <i>in</i> grain	Impute <i>to</i> love of gain
Find <i>out</i> the cause	Incentive <i>to</i> labour
Finish <i>with</i> a song	Inclined <i>to</i> idleness
Fit <i>for</i> a purpose	Included <i>in</i> the list
Fond <i>of</i> fruit	Inclusive <i>of</i> all charges
Foreign <i>to</i> a purpose	Inculcate <i>upon</i> a person
Forgetful <i>of</i> his duty	Indebted <i>to</i> the landlord
Free <i>from</i> blame	„ <i>in</i> a large sum
Frown <i>upon</i> a person or thing	Independent <i>of</i> help
Full <i>of</i> sorrow	Indicative <i>of</i> displeasure
	Indifferent <i>to</i> fame
Gifted <i>with</i> skill	Indignant <i>at</i> the insult
Glad <i>of, at</i> the result	Indulgent <i>to</i> his children
Glance <i>at</i> an object	Infected <i>with</i> small-pox
„ <i>over</i> a page	Infer <i>from</i> his manner
Glory <i>in</i> victory	Infested <i>with</i> snakes
Grasp <i>at</i> a shadow	Inflict punishment <i>on</i> him
Grateful <i>to</i> his parent	Influence <i>over, with</i> —a person
Greedy <i>of, after</i> riches	„ <i>on</i> his conduct
Grieve <i>at, for</i> an event	Inform a person <i>of</i> a thing
„ <i>for</i> a person	„ <i>against</i> a person
Grumble <i>at</i> the change	Infringe <i>on</i> his rights
Guard <i>against, from</i> danger	Initiate <i>into</i> crime
Guilty <i>of</i> murder	Inseparable <i>from</i> one another
	Insinuate <i>into</i> one's favour
Happen <i>in</i> a place, <i>at</i> a time, <i>as</i> a person	Insist <i>upon</i> payment
Healed <i>of</i> his disease	Intent <i>upon</i> his work
Hide <i>from</i> the enemy	Interfere <i>with</i> his rights
Hinder <i>from</i> speaking	Intimate <i>with</i> the prisoner
Hint <i>at</i> the cause	Introduce me <i>to</i> the professor
Hope <i>for</i> better times	Introduced <i>into</i> a room
	Intrude <i>upon</i> your time

Intrude *into* your compound
 Inured *to* hardship
 Inveigh *against* crime
 Invest *with* authority
 in land
 Invite *to* a marriage
 Involved *in* disgrace
 Irrelevant *to* the question
 Irrespective *of* the result

 Jealous *of* his rights
 Jest *at* danger
 Join *with* a person
 Judge *of* a person *by* his actions

 Know *of* five candidates

 Lame *of* a leg
 Lament *for* his only son
 Laugh *at* him *for* his folly
 Lavish *of* money
 Liable *to* abuse
 for the loss
 Lift him *up*
 Listen *to* a person
 for a song
 Lost *to* a sense of shame

 Made *of* wood *for* a purpose
 Marry one person *to* another
 Martyr *for* a cause, *to* a disease
 Meddle *with* the watch
 Meditate *upon* a question
 Meet *with* a refusal
 Militate *against* an opinion
 Mindful *of* his promise
 Mistrustful *of* a promise
 Mourn *for* his mother
 Moved *at* the sight
 by his passions
 to tears
 with envy
 Murmur *at* or *against* a person

 Natural *to* a boy
 Necessary *to* success, *for* the
 purpose

Necessity *of* the case
 for his going
 Need (noun) *of*, *for*—food
 Negligent *in* attendance

 Obedient *to* his teachers
 Object (verb) *to* the demand
 Obligated *to* him *for* the gift
 Observance *of* the Sabbath
 Occur *to* the writer
 Odious *to* a person
 Offend *against* a rule
 Officiate *for* another
 in a post
 Open *to* objection
 Opposed *to* fact
 Overcome *with* sleep
 Overwhelmed *with* joy

 Parallel *to* the first
 Part *with* his money
 Partake *of* food
 Partial *to* his friend
 Pass *by* the spot
 over the fault
 Passion *for* gambling
 Peculiar *to* the country
 Penitent *for* his conduct
 Perceptible *to* the age
 Persevere *in* study
 Persist *in* coming
 Pertain *to* the subject
 Play *at* cricket
 on the harp
 Polite *in* his manners
 to all
 Popular *for* his kindness
 with his companions
 Possessed *of* wealth
 with an idea
 Pray *for* a blessing
 Precious *to* the owner
 Preferable *to* the first
 Prefixed *to* the paper
 Prejudice *against* a person
 Prepared *for* the worst

Prepared *against* the future
 Preparatory *to* going
 Presume *upon* his good nature
 Pretext *for* absence
 Prevent *from* coming
 Previous *to* his death
 Profit *by* the transaction
 Profitable *to* the owner
 Prohibit *from* giving
 Prone *to* deceit
 Proper *for* the occasion
 Protest *against* the course
 Proud *of* his position
 Provide *for, with, against*
 Put up *with* abuse

Qualified *for* office
 Quarrel *with* a person
 „ *between* brothers
 Questioned *on* the subject
 Quick *at* accounts

Rebel *against* the king
 Recede *from* his position
 Reckless *of* danger
 Reckon *on* a profit
 Reconciled *to* a loss
 „ *with* an enemy
 Recover *from* fever
 Reduce *to* a state, *under* subjection
 Refer *to* his letter
 Refrain *from* deceit
 Regard *for* a person, *to* our neighbour
 Reign *over* the country
 Rejoice *at* his success, *with* me
 Relation *to* a matter
 Relations *with* a person
 Relieve *from* the task
 Relish *for* work
 Rely *on, upon* a promise or person
 Remind a person *of* a thing
 Remiss *in* duty
 Remit *to* England

Remote *from* home
 Remove *from* the post
 Repent *of* his refusal
 Repine *at* misfortune
 Replete *with* luxury
 Reply *to* a letter
 Reproach him *for* his fault
 Require *of* his security
 Rescue *from* danger
 Resigned *to* his lot
 Resolve *upon* a course
 Resort *to* trickery
 Respect (noun) *for* the aged
 „ *of* a matter
 Respond *to* his appeal
 Restore *to* an office
 Result (verb) *from* carelessness
 „ (noun) *of* the examination
 Revert *to* the owner
 Rich *in* cattle
 Rid *of* the whole affair
 Rob a person *of* a thing
 Rule *over* the country

Sacred *to* the memory
 Sanguine *of* success
 Search *for, after*—happiness
 Secure *from, against*—danger
 Sensible *of* kindness
 Sensitive *to* ridicule
 Serviceable *to* a person
 Shoot *at* a mark
 Short *of* money
 Sick *of* idleness
 Side (verb) *with* a person
 Significant *of* his designs
 Similar *to* the other
 Slothful *in* business
 Slow *of* speech
 „ *at* work
 Smile *at* his folly
 „ *upon* his proposal
 Snatch *at* the chance
 Solicitous *of* employment
 Sorry *for* the loss
 Sparing *of* praise

Specific <i>for</i> , <i>against</i> —fever	Triumph <i>over</i> an enemy
Spite <i>against</i> a person	True <i>to</i> nature
Sport <i>with</i> danger	Trust <i>in</i> a person, <i>to</i> a promise
Stained <i>with</i> sin	
Stare <i>at</i> a person	Unite <i>with</i> your brother
Stare a person <i>in</i> the face	Urge <i>upon</i> his attention
Strip <i>off</i> clothes	
Subject <i>to</i> orders	Vain <i>of</i> his beauty
Subscribe <i>to</i> a fund	Versed <i>in</i> logic
Subsequent <i>to</i> that event	Vested <i>in</i> land
Subsist <i>upon</i> bread	Vexed <i>at</i> a thing
Succeed <i>to</i> the title	„ <i>with</i> a person
„ <i>in</i> his attempt	Victorious <i>over</i> the enemy
Sufficient <i>for</i> the day	Vie <i>with</i> a person
Suitable <i>for</i> the purpose	Void <i>of</i> learning
„ <i>to</i> the occasion	
Supply <i>with</i> funds	Wait <i>upon</i> (attend) a person
Sure <i>of</i> success	„ <i>for</i> (stay) a person
Surprise <i>at</i> failure	Want <i>of</i> money
Suspicious <i>of</i> danger	Wanting <i>in</i> courage
Swerve <i>from</i> justice	Wain <i>of</i> danger
Sympathise <i>with</i> a person	„ <i>against</i> an enemy
Sympathy <i>for</i> the poor	Watch <i>for</i> the morning
	„ <i>over</i> a person
Tamper <i>with</i> the accounts	Weary <i>of</i> life
Taste <i>of</i> , what is enjoyed, <i>for</i> what we are able to enjoy	Wink <i>at</i> his neglect
Temperate <i>in</i> eating	Wish <i>for</i> rest
Tempt <i>with</i> money	Withdraw <i>from</i> the bargain
Thankful <i>to</i> him <i>for</i> the gift	Wonder <i>at</i> his conduct
Think <i>of</i> a person	Worthy <i>of</i> success
„ <i>on</i> , <i>our</i> —advice	Wrestle <i>with</i> difficulties
Thirst <i>for</i> gold, <i>after</i> gain	Yearn <i>for</i> home
Tired <i>of</i> delay	Yield <i>to</i> the outcry
„ <i>with</i> working	
Trample <i>upon</i> justice	Zeal <i>for</i> religion
Treat <i>of</i> the causes	Zest <i>for</i> pleasure
Trifle <i>with</i> the truth	

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

He fell from his horse. Is he greedy of gain? We must guard against such an evil. We are ignorant of many things. I am not indifferent to your happiness. It is difficult to convince him of his error. Diligent boys always attend to their studies. Sorrow

is inseparable from sin. He has profited by your advice. Never swerve from the path of duty. He was unjustly blamed for the accident. The man was accused of stealing by the owner.

Correct the following Errors :—

I am tired with his advice. Give an instance for a proper noun. I have a desire upon that. To which he complied. He had been applying to this post. I was made acquainted of his loss. The proposal was agreed by the others. Never be guilty for rudeness. Such behaviour is unworthy to you. She is afraid by a dog. We are now accustomed with these inconveniences. He is resolved of going to Bangalore. She had fallen to the well. He has profited from my loss. I wholly dissent with his opinion, and shall never be reconciled with it. What we did was strictly conformable with our instructions. He has a great resemblance of his father, and especially in his abhorrence against deceit. He is so eager for the pursuit of the object, that there is much difficulty of making him attend on anything else. As a page, he had to attend to his lady, who was glad at his services. This is quite adapted for common use. He has as much reason to be angry at him as at me. He should never be angry with trifles.

Form eight sentences with words followed by more than one Preposition.

THE CONJUNCTION.

Rule 37.—Conjunctions join the same cases of Nouns or Pronouns, and the same moods and tenses of Verbs.

*Examples :—*He and she are happy. He loves and obeys his parents.

Conjunctions join the same form of Verbs. He reads and does study every day, should be, He reads and studies every day.

Conjunctions have no governing power. The Objectives which follow them are governed by Verbs or Prepositions.

Note 1.—When Verbs connected by a Conjunction are in different circumstances, they may be in different moods and tenses, the subject being generally, but not always repeated ; as, *The steamer arrived in good time last month, but it is late this month.*

The Nominative is to be repeated when the Verbs are connected by either—or, neither—nor, though—yet, although ; and also when the sentence is emphatic or interrogative.

Note 2.—When several particulars are spoken of collectively or separately, and, or, or nor, is usually prefixed to the last only ; as, *He eats, drinks, and sleeps ; He neither eats, drinks, nor sleeps.*

Note 3.—The Auxiliary Verb is often omitted after *if*, *lest*, *though*, *until*, &c. ; as, *If he sell it, I cannot prevent him* : i.e., *If he should sell, &c.* Some of these Conjunctions, and also *that*, are themselves often omitted ; as, *Were he not blind, he would acknowledge it* : i.e., *If he were not, &c.* *He knows (that) I must sell.*

Note 4.—*Since*, as a Conjunction, signifies *from which time*. It is followed by a Verb in the *Past Indefinite Tense* ; it is preceded by a Verb in the *Present Indefinite* or *Present Perfect Tense*, and by a Noun denoting some *period of time*—not a *point of time*. Thus, *Three months have gone since my brother left.* *It is now a year since it happened.*

Note 5.—*Than* follows Adjectives in the comparative, and also *rather* and *other* ; and is itself often followed by the objective (not the nominative) of the *Relative Pronoun* ; as, *I would have the book rather than the picture.*

Note 6.—A Pronoun after *than* or *as* either agrees with a Verb, or is governed by a Verb or Preposition understood ; as, *He is wiser than I (am)* ; *She loved him more than (she loved) me* ; *You are as tall as I.*

Note 7.—Certain Conjunctions require corresponding Conjunctions ; as,

Either, or :—It was either the man or the woman.

Neither, nor :—He will neither go nor stay.

Whether, or :—Whether he agrees or not, it must be done.

Though, yet :—Though they paid him high, yet he was unfaithful.

As, as :—As clear as the sun.

As, so :—As is the child, so is the man.

So, as :—He is not so attentive as he was.

So, that :—He was so determined, that nothing could persuade him.

Both, and :—It is both cheap and good.

If, then :—If you saw him, then I yield the point.

Because, therefore :—Because he sinned, &c., therefore he is unhappy.

In poetry, *or* and *nor* are often employed instead of *either* and *neither* ; as, "*Or by the lazy Scheldt or wandering Po.*" *Not* and *never* are also sometimes thus used ; as, *He never tires nor stops to rest.*

Parse the following Sentences :—

He and I commenced our studies at the same time. The man is good, but not wise. If we contend about trifles, and violently maintain our opinion, we shall gain but few friends. When blessed with health and prosperity, cultivate an humble and a compassionate disposition. Speak but the word, and I am ready.

Never sport with pain in any of your amusements, nor treat even the meanest insect with wanton cruelty. If we knew how much the pleasures of this life deceive and betray their unhappy votaries, and reflected on the disappointments in pursuit, the dissatisfaction in enjoyment, or the uncertainty of possession, which everywhere attend them, we should cease to be enamoured of these brittle and transient joys, and should wisely fix our hearts on those virtuous attainments, which the world can neither give nor take away.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rule, with Notes 1 and 2. He railed against you and I. John, you and me will arrange. Did I not warn you, and begged you to be prudent? My uncle and him came. They would neither attend themselves, nor suffered others to do so. The day is approaching and hastens upon us in which we must give an account of our stewardship. Have you any message for my brother or I? Scotland and thee did each in other live. Whether he buys, or sell, or exchanges, he discovers the same probity. If he understands his business and attend to it, he ought to succeed. Did I not tell you and wrote to you? He told her and I.

Note 5.—She was four years older nor him; but I am two years older than her. I would rather be a good scholar and a good man as a wealthy and unscrupulous rajah. He attended to no other pursuit but that of cultivating flowers. I will rather go myself as disappoint you. I am certain it was no other but the prince, than who none looks more commanding. You are a much greater loser beyond me by his death.

Note 6.—Gopal is not as desirous of knowledge as his brother. It will improve neither the mind or delight the imagination. He is in the habit both of writing sermons as well as plays. He is as good, if not better, than him. Neither the good or the bad are free from reverses. It is of no consequence whether he goes nor stays. I must be so plain to tell you that it is not the case. Though I heard it, still I cannot credit it. His sight has become so weak as he can see only indistinctly. The Athenians were as vain as to call themselves earth-born.

Rule 38.—Interjections are followed by the Objective case of the Pronoun of the first person, and by the Nominative of the Pronoun of the second.

As, Ah me! Oh me! O thou! O ye!

MISCELLANEOUS MISTAKES FOR CORRECTION.

MISTAKES IN IDIOM, ETC.

How many hours you require for this paper? I have the honour to inform you that I have reached this station yesterday. My brother is the student in Benares College. Do you know when will the examiner come? This is a long paper; have you completed? He saw that the camel is excited. Nile is the large river in Africa. He came in train to the Madras. I send this letter with Govind. I had no opportunity for telling to him. For a long time I am waiting for you. He has gone to Bombay last month. I done write exercise. I am in this school since two years. Will I come to-morrow? How I can learn lesson with no any book? He did not give good examination. Krishna did not come yet. I too much tired. How to do this? Rama assisted to Hari. When I spoke to him he told to go. Please keep favour upon me. He told he will not give. I was promoted six months before. Yesterday I have been to bank. How the Roman Empire is so miserably fallen! This house is high than that. This is the oldest of the two. He asked me where you going? All boys should have his own book. The all men are not wise. Little rain would be good for the crops. Since a week I have not seen him. It is five weeks ago I began to study the English. It is two hours since I am here. Why you not come to school yesterday? I will call you to-day night. I am very ill, but I hope I will be better soon. Would we be paid if we went?

He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly to blame. I have come to satisfy the wants which you felt from a long time. No sooner Govind came than Rama went away. The judge decided the case to him. By his refusal he was dismissed. He did not obey to their advice. He says he have not been able to learn. He had heard that the ship in which I have sailed was drowned off Madras. Gentleman said he will write to you this day. It is convenient for all than formerly. This question is difficult than that. My teacher is angry on me. My father gave a book me. He ordered to come the servants. They did not obey to his commands. An earliest reply is requested. I have no any desire to go. Ask him for dinner to-day evening. Set to him good example. I replied how that I would give him what he asked, and he greatly astonished of this. So young the boy was he ventured to ask the robber what right you have for coming into my father's garden.

I said him to come with me; he replied that, very well, I am going with you just now. My circumstance is very miserable. He has tried much as he pulls out the punkah all the day long.

For a rainy weather a monkey took a shelter under a root of a tree where a nest of Loxia bird was hanging; then the bird

seeing the wretched monkey being wet entirely by rain, advised why do you never build a proper house for your residing against the day of winter? Upon hearing this, the monkey having given room to his rage, climbed over the tree and made the nest into pieces. So, thou wilt be damaged, if thou wouldst give advice to a person who hath no learning and wisdom.

Sir,—I beg to inform to your honour, that, since four weeks, I have been unable to attend to school, on account of these my following troubles. As I had an urgent business, for this very reason I was gone to home. When I reached in my village, I found that my house was totally fallen by cause of rain. My mother was severely caught by fever from four days, and was too ill. She was even at the end of dying. My brother was accused in a case of idleness about his duties; he received his jawab, and we were helpless. I am informed that you have forbidden that I should not receive the whole of my scholarship. As I am faultless in my absence, I hope you will be good enough and excuse me from deducting the money. Yours obedient servant,¹

Nobody since two thousand years found the true reason why water does rise in pump. The common vulgar people told that it pump has power of suction. The philosophers declared that it seems to us, Nature abhors vacuum. The Galileo's pupils did not see how can this be, for above thirty-two feet, Nature does not make no objections to vacuum. It was not until after much study that he did not discover the true reason.¹

It will be well if the education is extended to all the persons, and to encourage spread of learning. Such an arrangement like the above Government is making since the last many years, with universal approbation of public. Many a clever persons say education as a best reason of all others of incurring the expense of public. Boys are now learnt to read no sooner are they of eight years in their age. Some much ignorant peoples tell that there is no use of education; they are despaired of its success, and are very much angry at those who hope all would learn trading by State expense. They called hard names to those who wish that education will be taught by making public expense, charging them of stealing the public of money without needs. It is wonder how they cannot be aware what advantages shall be derived by the education.²

Sir,—I am sorry to inform that Ramchandra is very naughty boy. He gives his master deal of troubles. He is absent from school since three days; and to-day he tells lie that "I had been sick by fever." Neither he is regular nor he is punctual;

¹ Calcutta Entrance Examination.

² Bombay Matriculation Examination.

and no sooner he comes in school than he makes mischief with his class brothers or on the furnitures. Also he is too idle. He takes no any words out of dictionary, nor he learns his recitation. Always he misspells the words "seperate" and "extension," and always he calls every complex sentence a "principle sentence." At the play called the cricket he is very much quarrelsome; and day before yesterday he had spoken much abuses to his family members. What to do to get him improved? If I will keep him at home, how he will get the education? And if I will send him in school, head-master will expel him. As I have no any case of this business, so I hope your kindness will give me advices and tell what can I do, and oblige. I remain, Sir, your's most obedient servant.¹

FALSE SYNTAX IN STANDARD AUTHORS FOR CORRECTION.

The army, whom its chief had thus abandoned, pursued meanwhile their miserable march.—*Lockhart's Napoleon*. Every invention known in the European art of war, as well as every precaution suggested by his long acquaintance with the Indian mode of fighting, were employed to ensure success.—*Robertson's America*. The creed of Zoroaster supposes the co-existence of a benevolent and malevolent principle.—*Scott*. Their peculiar haunt, it is said, are the deep gorges of the mountains.—*Huc*. The Prince Regent's present of casts have arrived.—*Haydon*. To aim at public and private good are so far from being inconsistent, that they mutually prompt each other.—*Ep. Butler*. The workmen are beginning to arrest men who express Fenian sentiments for themselves.—*Spectator*. If there is any one embarrassed it will not be me, and it will not be she.—*W. Black*. Now he had lost her, he wanted her back: and perhaps every one present except he guessed why.—*C. Kingsley*. Let you and I look at these, for they say that there are none such in the world.—*H. Kingsley*. I always delight in overthrowing those kind of schemes, and cheating a person of their premeditated contempt.—*Austen*. There are no less than five words, with any of which the sentence might have terminated.—*Campbell's Rhet.* Hence their civil and religious history are inseparable.—*Milman's Jews*. Indeed, such an one is not to be looked for.—*Blair's Rhet.* When the figurative and literal sense are mixed and jumbled together.—*Ib.* The Nominative expresses the name of the person or thing which acts, or which is the subject of discourse.—*Hiley's Gram.* Everybody trembled for themselves or their friends.—*Goldsmith's Greece*. The undisciplined fury and unarmed courage of the Pisidians was unable to check the progress of Alexander.—*Gillies' Greece*. His ignorance or severity were alike unworthy of the important

¹ *The Bombay Educational Record.*

office with which he was entrusted. He gave laws which, according to the lively expression of an orator, seemed to be written, not with ink, but with blood; since death or banishment were his ordinary penalties for the most trivial offences.—*Ib.* Neither of them are remarkable for precision.—*Blair's Lect.* Each of these words imply some pursuit or object relinquished.—*Ib.* Caesar having in this manner made an example which he supposed was to overawe all the nations of that neighbourhood, he withdrew with his army.—*Ferguson's Rom. Repub.* A feeble, harsh, or an obscure style, are always faults.—*Blair's Rhct.* Exactly like so many puppets, who are moved by wires.—*Ib.* It would have given me great satisfaction to have been enabled to communicate to you the termination of the war between this country and the United States of America.—*The King's Speech*, Nov. 8th, 1814. The successful course of this operation has been followed by the immediate submission of the extensive and important district east of the Penobscot river to His Majesty's arms.—*Ib.* The civil government was then very submissive, and heretics were almost unknown.—*Lecky.* No one as yet had exhibited the structure of the human kidneys, Vesalius having only examined them in a dog.—*Hallam.* The farmstead was always the wooden, white-painted house of which all the small country towns are composed.—*Marquis of Lorne.* The sight of his blood whom they deemed invulnerable shook the courage of the soldiers.—*Alison.* It would doubtless have exhibited itself quietly enough if it were absolutely undiluted.—*J. McCarthy.* If with equal force of character his intellectual power had been less, we should feel the shock without the mysterious attraction.—*Lestie Stephen.* I meant when first I came to have bought all Paris.—*Syd. Smith.* I never have, and never will attack a man for speculative opinions.—*Buckle.* I am one of those who cannot describe what I do not see.—*W. H. Russell.* The fear of not being approved as just copiers of human manners, is not the most important concern that an author of this sort ought to have before him.—*Johnson's Rambler.* We do not know in what either reason or instinct consist.—*Ib.* Logic is the art of using reason well in our inquiries after truth, and the communication of it to others.—*Watts' Logic.* Reason is the glory of human nature, and one of the chief eminences whereby we are raised above our fellow-creatures, the brutes, in this lower world.—*Ib.* Homer is universally allowed to have had the greatest invention of any writer whatever.—*Pope.* Our ideas of numbers are of all others the most accurate and distinct.—*Duncan's Logic.* Were it not for this, the secondary rocks, being in position superincumbent on the primary, ought to be the highest of the two.—*Prof. Playfair.* The twofold action of heat to expand and to melt could scarce be pointed out more clearly by any system of

appearances.—*Ib.* It will be every day more impossible to engage in that occupation.—*Edin. Review.* Nor is danger ever apprehended in such a government from the violence of the sovereign, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes.—*Hume's Essays.* A greater quantity may be taken from the heap without making any sensible alteration upon it.—*Ib.* The Court of Augustus had not wore off the manners of the republic.—*Ib.* I fancy they are these kind of gods, which Horace mentions.—*Addison.* Cibber grants it to be a better poem than ever was writ.—*Pope.* Such notions would be avowed at this time by none but Rosicrucians, and fanatics as mad as them.—*Bolingbroke.* I know not whom else are expected.—*Sir W. Scott.* He found the greatest difficulty of writing.—*Hume's England.* The esteem which Philip had conceived of the Ambassador.—*Ib.* The Jesuits had more interest at court than him.—*Smollet.* Which extends it no farther than the variation of the verb extend.—*Murray.* Hisutus had no other reason for the valuing a book.—*Johnson's Rambler.* Stimulated, in turn, by their approbation and that of better judges than them, she turned to their literature with redoubled energy.—*Quarterly Review.* The United States contains more than a twentieth part of the land of this globe.—*De Witt Clinton.* But what has disease, deformity, and filth, upon which the thoughts can be allured to dwell.—*Johnson.* The daring soul of the first Cæsar, or the deep policy of Augustus, were scarcely equal to the task of curbing the insolence of the victorious legions.—*Gibbon's Rom. Emp.* But the temper as well as knowledge of a modern historian require a more sober and accurate language.—*Ib.*

With the azure and vermilion,
Which is mix'd for my pavilion.—*Byron.*

Thou, Nature, partial Nature, I arraign,
Of thy caprice maternal I complain.—*Burns.*

And love's and friendship's finely pointed dart,
Falls blunted from each indurated heart.—*Goldsmith.*

Nor knows he who it is his arms pursue
With eager clasps, but loves he knows not who.—*Addison.*

Time was, like thee, they life possess'd,
And time shall be, that thou shalt rest.—*Parnell.*

High rides the sun, thick rolls the dust,
And feebler speeds the blow and thrust.—*Sir W. Scott.*

Woods and groves are of Thy dressing,
Hill and dale doth boast Thy blessing.—*Milton.*

Bent is his bow the Grecian hearts to wound ;
 Fierce, as he moved, his silver shafts resound.—*Pope*.
 Praise from a friend or censure from a foe,
 Are lost on hearers that our merits know.—*Ib.*
 Memory and forecast just returns engage,
 This pointing back to youth, that on to age.—*Ib.*
 What is't to thee, if he neglect thy urn,
 Or without spices lets thy body burn ?—*Dryden*.
 Nor war nor wisdom yield our Jews delight ;
 They will not study, and they dare not fight.—*Crabbe*.
 'Tis hard to say if greater want of skill,
 Appear in writing or in judging ill.—*Pope*.
 But where is he, the Pilgrim of my song,
 Methinks he cometh late, and tarries long.—*Byron*.
 Yes ; thy proud lords, unpitied land, shall see,
 That man hath yet a soul, and dare be free.—*Campbell*.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

A Sentence is any number of words having a full meaning ; as, *The soul never dies*.

The words "From virtue to vice" do not form a sentence, because the sense is incomplete. But the words, "From virtue to vice, the progress is gradual," form a sentence, because they have a full meaning.

The breaking up of a sentence into its parts to show how they are related to each other is called its *Analysis*.¹

Analysis is a Greek word, which means *unloosening*. Its opposite is *Synthesis*,² which means *putting together*. When we put words or phrases together to make a sentence, we perform an act of *composition* or of *synthesis*.

Sentences, according to their form, have been classified as follows :—

An **Affirmative** sentence affirms or asserts something ; as, Krishna spoke the truth.

A **Negative** sentence denies something ; as, The accused denied the charge.

An **Imperative** sentence gives a command ; as, Bring the box.

An **Interrogative** sentence asks a question ; as, Will you go ?

An **Optative**³ sentence expresses a wish ; as, May you live long ;
 Greek has a special mood for this called the *Optative*, but in English the verb is in the Subjunctive.

¹ *Ana*, up, *lyō*, to loosen. ² *Syn*, together, *thesis*, a placing. ³ *Opto*, to wish.

A **Conditional** sentence expresses a thing as depending on some thing else; as, If he does the work, I will pay him.

An **Exclamatory**¹ sentence expresses some sudden feeling; as, How brave he is!

In exclamatory sentences the usual order of the word is changed for the sake of effect. In analysing them, they should be placed in affirmative order. The same remark applies to **Interrogative** sentences.

Every Sentence consists of two parts—the **Subject** and the **Predicate**.

The **Subject** is the person or thing spoken of.

The **Predicate**² is what is said about the Subject.

Thus, in the sentence "Rain falls," *rain* is the **Subject**, and *falls* the **Predicate**. The Subject is the answer to the question made by putting *who* or *what* before the Verb.

Sentences are of three kinds—Simple, Complex, and Compound.

I. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A **Simple Sentence** contains only one Subject and one Predicate; as, *Birds sing*.

A simple sentence contains only *one* Finite³ Verb.

A *Finite* Verb is one limited by number, person, &c. A participle or an infinitive mood is not to be mistaken for a Predicate. The former is to be treated as an *Adjective*, the latter as a *Noun*.

1. THE SUBJECT.

The **Subject** must be a **Noun** or some word or words used in place of a **Noun**:

1. A **Noun**. *Rama* came. Where is *Govind*?
2. A **Pronoun**. *He* came. *They* went away.
3. A **Adjective** used as a **Noun**. The *virtuous* are happy.
4. A **Gerund** or **Verbal Noun**. *Walking* is healthy.
5. A **Infinitive**. *To lie* is mean.
6. A **Phrase**⁴ or **Sentence**. *Well begun* is half done.
7. A **Quotation**. "*Good night, Sir*," was the reply.

¹ *Ex*, out, *clamo*, to shout. ² *Præ*, before, *dico*, to say.

³ *I* *ms*, and. ⁴ A part of a sentence, *phraso*, to speak.

In Infinitive sentences the subject is often omitted ; as, *Run* = run (you).

Nouns in the Vocative are not the subject ; Krishna, may Rama come? Here Rama is the subject.

In some cases *it*, *this*, and *that* are mere provisional subjects, the real subject coming afterwards ; as, It is my ambition to succeed. The subject is *to succeed*. It (namely) to succeed is my ambition.

Generally, however, except in Interrogative sentences, the subject is placed *before* the predicate.

Sometimes, especially in poetry, an unnecessary pronoun is put in with the *Subject*, and may be considered as forming part of it ; as, My banks, *they* are furnished with bees.

EXERCISE.

What is a *Sentence*? What is the *Analysis of Sentences*? Of what two parts does every Sentence consist? What is the *Subject*? What is the *Predicate*? Give examples. What are the three kinds of sentences? What is a *simple sentence*? How many *Finite Verbs* does it contain? What is a *Finite Verb*? What must the subject be? Give examples of words used in place of Nouns? In what sentences is the subject often omitted? What Nouns cannot be the subject? What are sometimes merely provisional subjects? Where is the subject generally placed?

Point out the Subjects and Predicates in the following sentences :-
 Cæsar defeated Pompey. Sin leads to ruin. The rainy season follows the hot season. The earth is round. Painting is one of the Fine Arts. He gave me a rupee. In 1066 A.D. William the Conqueror invaded England. The valley of the Ganges is very fertile. The righteous shall flourish as the palm tree. Blessed are the pure in heart. Day and night at the equator are of equal length. Glass is transparent. He ought to go home. The boy is learning English. To succeed, you must be diligent. To return good for evil is noble. Professing regard and acting differently, marks a base mind.

Make six simple sentences.

Enlargements of Subject or Adjuncts.

The Simple Subject is generally a Noun in the Nominative Case. This may be called the **Grammatical Subject**.

Nouns are often qualified by Adjectives. A Noun with its Adjective is called the **Enlarged Subject**. En-

largements are so named because they enlarge or increase our knowledge of the thing spoken of. Example: *Diligent scholars learn.*

<i>Simple Subject.</i>	<i>Enlargement.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Scholars.	Diligent.	Learn.

The term **Enlargements** is not very appropriate, for although they increase the meaning, they limit its extent. **Adjuncts**,¹ things added, is preferable.

Instead of Adjectives, Enlargements may consist of words or phrases having the nature of Adjectives.

1. A Noun or Pronoun in apposition: William *the Conqueror* died; The king *himself* was there.

2. A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case: Rama's book is lost; Her dress is torn.

3. A Preposition and its Object: The house *on the hill* was sold.

4. An Adjectival Phrase: A judge, *unjust in his conduct*, is despised.

5. A Participle or Participial Phrase: The men, *watching*, saw him; Rama, *having repeated* his lesson, went to his seat.

6. An Infinitive or Infinitive Phrase: The wisest course—to leave—did not occur to him.

7. A Combination² of two or more of the above: *Gorind's best dress is torn; Gorind's younger brother, being idle, failed.*

Subjects may have an unlimited number of Enlargements of various kinds. An **Enlargement** may itself be enlarged by the same parts of speech as form the primary Enlargements.

EXERCISES.

What is the *Simple Subject* generally? What is the *Enlarged Subject*? Why are *Enlargements* so called? Why is the name not appropriate? What term is preferable? What does *Adjunct* mean? Of what must enlargements consist? Give specimens of each.

Point out the Simple Subjects and the Enlargements in the following sentences:—Wisdom's ways are pleasantness. Evil communications corrupt good manners. Denial of a fault doubles it. Every day in thy life is a leaf in thy history. A little wrong done to another is a great wrong done to ourselves. The sense of duty is a great gift. One hour to-day is worth two to-morrow. The effort to succeed will be crowned with success. All men think all men mortal but themselves. We forgive our friends

¹ *Adj*, to, junctus, joined. ² *Com*, con, together, *Un*, two by two; union.

their faults. The lightning struck him dead. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. The captain's child, six years of age, was drowned.

Make six sentences with Enlargements of the Subject.

THE PREDICATE.

The **Predicate** is that which is stated of the subject. It is always a Verb, either alone or with some other word or words.

As already mentioned, the Predicate requires a *Finite* Verb. Thus the Participle "learning," or the Infinitive "to learn," cannot form a Predicate. They must first be converted into Finite Verbs; as, Govind is learning.

The **complete Predicate** includes all that is stated of the subject. The **simple Predicate** includes only the Verb; as, Fire *burns*.

Some Intransitive Verbs express a full meaning of themselves, and do not require any word to be placed after them. Such are called Verbs of *Complete Predication*; as, Birds *sing*.

Other Intransitive Verbs require some word to be placed after them to make the meaning complete. What is placed after such Verbs of *Incomplete Predication* is called the **Complement**; as, Gold *is heavy*; The horse *seems strong*.

To be is the principal Verb of the above class. Except when it denotes existence, as God is, &c., it always requires a complement. Other Verbs of Incomplete Predication are *appear, seem, become, grow, live, look, &c.*

Such Verbs are also called *Copulative* (uniting), as they do not make complete sense of themselves.

Facitive Verbs in the Passive Voice are also Verbs of *Incomplete Predication*, and require a **Complement**; as, The prince was crowned *king*.

The Predicate of a sentence may consist of the following :—

1. A Verb: Rivers *flow*.
2. A Verb with a Noun or Pronoun: Rama *is a teacher*; It *was he*.
3. A Verb and Adjective: The coolie *is idle*.
4. A Verb and an Adverb: My books *are here*.
5. A Verb and an Infinitive: He *came to learn*.
6. A Verb and Participle: Govind *went running*.
7. A Verb and a Phrase: The house *is in excellent order*.

EXERCISES.

What is the *Predicate*? What is it always? How do the *Simple* and *Complete* Predicates differ? What are Verbs of *Complete* Predication? Give examples. What are Verbs of *Incomplete* Predication? Give examples. What is that placed after them called? What is the principal Verb of *Incomplete* Predication? Why? What are other Verbs of this class? What are they also called? Why? What other Verbs of *Incomplete* Predication require a complement? Of what may the Predicate of a sentence consist? Give examples.

Name the Subjects and Predicates in the following Sentences:—
 The stars twinkle. Lord Lansdowne became Viceroy. He is in good health. It is I. The man was of great size. The way was long. To try is the way to succeed. A thing of beauty is a joy for ever. He is poor. Was he happy? The wily thief was caught at last. The rain ceased. The moon is shining bright. Rama appears to be diligent. The timber is yonder. The poor widow came weeping.

THE OBJECT, OR COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

When the Predicate Verb is transitive, it has an **Object**; as, Wellington defeated *Napoleon*.

The Object is strictly a *complement*, but on account of its importance, it is treated as a separate part of a sentence.

The Object is usually a Noun or something equivalent to a Noun.

The Object of a sentence may be :

1. A Noun or Pronoun: Fishermen catch *fish*; He shot *him*.
2. An Adjective used as a Noun: We should pity *the poor*.
3. A Gerund: Govind likes *reading*.
4. An Infinitive: Learn *to labour*.
5. A Phrase or Sentence: The vakil promised *that it should be done*.
6. A Quotation: “*Try not the pass!*” the old man said.

The *Object* may be enlarged, like the *Subject*; by

1. An Adjective: The hunter caught a *large* deer.
2. A Noun or Pronoun in apposition: I knew Govind, *your brother*.
3. A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case; Krishna lost *Rama's* books; He sold *his* house.
4. A Participle: I saw him *standing*.
5. An Infinitive: He has a house *to let*.

6. A **Participial Phrase**: I saw him *running in the field*.

7. An **Infinitive Phrase**: The teacher told Rama the course to be followed by him.

8. A **Prepositional Phrase**: I saw the owner of the field.

9. A **combination of the above**: I found the boys *playing in the large compound*.

An **Enlargement** being a word or phrase that qualifies a Noun or its equivalent, must always be an Adjective or equivalent to an Adjective.

The Object, like the Subject, may have an unlimited number of Enlargements.

Some Transitive Verbs take two objects. One relating to a thing is called the *Direct Object*; the other relating to a person is called the *Indirect Object*.

The Indirect Object may occur after Verbs of *giving, promising, refusing, telling, &c.*: as, His father gave him a book. This is sometimes called the *Dative Object*. It may, or may not, be preceded by the Preposition *to*.

The Indirect Object may be (1) A *Noun*: I paid the coolie a rupee. (2) A *Pronoun*: I gave him your message. (3) A *Prepositional Phrase*: I mistook him for a peon. (4) An *Infinitive*: I saw him run.

Verbs of *making, appointing, wishing, &c.*, are called *Factitive Verbs*. In the Active Voice they not only take an object called the *Factitive Object*, but require a *Complement* after the object to complete the sense.

The Complement may be a Noun, an Adjective, a Verb, an Adverb, or a phrase; as, The king appointed him governor; He made him happy; I heard him talking; I found him there.

A *Cognate Object* is one in which the Predicate and Object are words from the same root; as, Govind ran a race.

When an Active Verb with two Objects is changed into the Passive form, that Object which is retained while the other becomes the Subject, is termed the *Retained Object*; as, Compensation was refused him.

The word *it, this, and that* may form Provisional Objects just as they form Provisional Subjects; as, He deems it infamous to tell a lie; This I forbid, no copying from each other.

EXERCISES.

What has the Predicate Verb when Transitive? What is the Object *strictly*? Why is it treated separately? What is the Object

usually? What may it be? Give examples. How may the Object be enlarged? Give examples. What do some Transitive Verbs take after them? What are the two Objects called? After what Verbs does the *Dative Object* occur? By what may it be preceded? What are Factitive Verbs? What do they take in the Active Voice? What may the *Complement* be? Give examples.

Name the Objects in the following, and say of what each consists:—

We wished him much joy. The sailor taught him swimming. The fox paid the crow great attention. Cats love to lie basking in the sun. Through an Alpine village passed a youth. A soldier's death thou hast boldly died. I saw the boys playing at cricket. Leaves have their time to fall. We should try to help the sickly poor. They ate four ripe mangoes. The poor woman has no money to pay for her food. He praised him for his courage. There is a fine old tree in the garden. He taught me to speak English. I found him reading in the library. Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary. He built a wall six feet high.

THE EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE.

The Predicate is always a Verb. It may be enlarged, extended, or modified by an Adverb or its equivalent. Such modifications are called **Extensions of the Predicate**, or its **Adjuncts**.

The Extensions may be :

1. An Adverb : The soldier died *bravely*.
2. An Adverbial Phrase : Govind studies *now and then*.
3. A Prepositional Phrase : He will return *in a few days*.
4. A Noun Phrase : They went *side by side*.
5. An Infinitive : I shall try *to follow*.
6. An Infinitive Phrase : Govind went *to bring some paper*.
7. A Participle : Govind came *running*.
8. A Participial Phrase : I saw him *standing at the door*.
9. An Absolute Phrase : The clock *having struck six*, we set out; *To tell you the truth*, I think him dishonest.

The above classification is according to *Grammar*. They may also be arranged according to *distinction in thought*.

The following are examples :—

1. **Time** : I studied there *three years*.
2. **Place** : I came *from Calcutta*.
3. **Magnitude** : He went *four miles* ; It measured *three acres*.

4. **Manner:** He writes *well*.
5. **Agent:** The defendant was represented *by his vakil*.
6. **Instrument:** He was slain *by the sword*.
7. **Cause:** He was dismissed *for idleness*.
8. **Purpose:** He went there *to gain a living*.

EXERCISES.

What is the Predicate always? How may it be enlarged? What are such modifications called? What may they be? Give examples of each. How may Extensions also be classified? Give examples of each.

Point out the Extensions of the Predicate in the following sentences and classify them grammatically —

He was going to Agra. His father died a year ago. He has a cottage by the sea. We arrived in time. They sailed along the coast. I could not speak for laughing. I knocked twice. We then marched forward. He struck with all his might. He built his house on a rising ground. He caught cold from not changing his damp clothes. How cleverly he talks! I have been a stranger in a strange land. They worked day and night. Having made these remarks, he sat down.

Write sentences containing examples of the nine Extensions enumerated.

ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A simple sentence may contain the following:—

1. A Subject.
2. An Enlargement of the Subject.
3. A Predicate.
4. An Object.
5. An Enlargement of the Object.
6. An Extension of the Predicate.

The first and third, the *Subject* and *Predicate*, are essential to every sentence. The others may or may not be present.

When the parts of a sentence are not in the usual order, it is said to be *inverted*, or turned upside down. This is often the case in poetry; as, Round went the wheels.

In analysing a simple sentence proceed as follows:—

1. Set down the **Subject** of the sentence. In Imperative sentences this is often not expressed.

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low-

2. Set down the Predicate of the sentence. This must be a Finite Verb, with number and person—not a participle or an infinitive.

3. If the Verb be Transitive and in the Active Voice, set down the *Direct Object*, and, if there be one, the *Indirect Object*. To find the former, place *whom* or *what* after the Verb; to find the latter, place *to* whom or *to* what after the Verb.

4. Set down the enlargements of the Subject.

5. Set down the enlargements of the Object.

6. Set down the extensions of the Predicate.

The following hints should receive attention :—

Interrogative sentences should be treated as *Assertive*; as, Where are you going? should be analysed as, You are going where?

Interrogative Pronouns may be either Subjects or Objects.

Interrogative Adverbs should be ranked with *Adverbial Extensions*.

The Vocative or Nominative of Address is *Interjectional*. It may be placed with that part of the sentence to which it specially belongs, or it may be placed in the same column as the Subject.

The Noun or Pronoun in an absolute clause is not to be connected with the Subject of the sentence: The raja having died, his son succeeded him.

When a word denotes quality, it is *Adjectival* in nature; when it indicates manner, it is *Adverbial* in nature. The former is probably an Enlargement of the Subject or Object; the latter, an Extension of the Predicate.

The Infinitive may be (1) Subject. (2) Part of the Predicate. (3) Object. (4) Extension of the Predicate. The Simple Infinitive and the Gerundial Infinitive are to be distinguished; as, He likes to shoot; and He came to shoot.

Copulative Verbs cannot alone form a Predicate. The Nouns or Adjectives with them which they connect with the Subject form part of the Predicate; as, I am sorry (Pred.).

The introductory particle *there* is reckoned with adverbial extensions. The simple negative *not* is usually taken with the Predicate.

In "Let us go," *let* is an Imperative, *us* the Direct Object, and *go* the Indirect Object.

Sentences may be analysed either in the Detailed Form or the Tabular Form. The former enables the sentence to be divided to any extent; the latter has the great advantage of clearness, and is preferred by examiners as giving less trouble.

The following is an example of the Detailed Form :

SENTENCE.—The warlike Romans subdued the whole country with great rapidity.

KIND OF SENTENCE.—Simple.

SUBJECT.—Romans.

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.—The warlike.

PREDICATE.—Subdued.

OBJECT.—Country.

ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT.—The whole.

EXTENSION OF PREDICATE.—With great rapidity.

The Tabular Analysis would be as follows :

Subject.	Enlargement of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargement of Object.	Extension of Predicate.
Romans	The warlike	subdued	country	the whole	with great rapidity.

One or two other examples may be given of the Analysis of Simple Sentences,

"At a small distance from the house my predecessor had made a seat overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle."—*Vicar of Wakefield.*

SUBJECT.—Predecessor.

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.—My.

PREDICATE.—Had made.

OBJECT.—A seat.

ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT.—Overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle.

EXTENSION.—At a small distance from the house.

"But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
Always from port withheld, always distressed,—
Me howling winds drive devious—tempest-tossed,
Sails rent, seams opening wide, and compass lost."

Cowper.

SUBJECT.—Winds.

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.—Howling.

PREDICATE.—Drive devious.

OBJECT.—Me.

ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT.—Scarce hoping to attain that rest, always from port withheld, always distressed, tempest-tossed.

EXTENSIONS OF PREDICATE.—Sails rent, seams opening wide, compass lost. (Nominative Absolute.)

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—she knew

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low-

EXERCISES.

What are the essential parts of a sentence? What six parts may some sentences contain? When the parts of a sentence are not in the usual order, what is it said to be? What course should be followed in analysing a simple sentence? How should Interrogative sentences be treated? What can a Noun or Pronoun in an absolute sense not be? What must be included with Copulative Verbs in the Predicate? How is the introductory particle *where* to be reckoned? In what two forms may sentences be analysed? What are their respective advantages?

Analyse, in either of the given forms, the following Sentences:—
 The battle of Marathon secured the liberty of Greece. Ambition often puts men upon performing the meanest offices. An hour like this may well display the emptiness of human grandeur. A desire to excel will stimulate to exertion. Tall oaks from little acorns grow. Solomon, the son of David, built the splendid temple at Jerusalem. Pride, that never-failing vice of fools, is not easily defined. To create creatures liable to wants, is to render them susceptible of enjoyment. By a wise provision of Providence, the inferior animals have not the gift of speech. The complaints of the old man excited the indignation of the bystanders. The blow did the Saracen but very little injury. Then shook the hills by thunder riven.

Imperial Caesar, dead and turned to clay,
 Might stop a hole to keep the wind away.

All silently the little moon
 Drops down behind the sky.

Him the Almighty Power
 Hurl'd headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
 With hideous ruin and combustion, down
 To bottomless perdition.

II. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

A COMPLEX SENTENCE consists of a **Principal Sentence** with one or more *Dependent* or **Subordinate Sentences**; as, I shall see you *before you leave*; I am very anxious *that he should pass*: Govind, *whom I met yesterday*, said that his brother, *who left Calcutta last month*, had just returned.

The parts in *italics* are the Subordinate Sentences. Each sentence makes complete sense; but the *full meaning* of a Subordinate Sentence is not felt till it is joined to the Principal Sentence.

Complex¹ means *folded together*. **Subordinate**² means of *lower rank*. The Conjunctions that join Subordinate Sentences to the principal are called **Subordinative**.

A Subordinate Sentence is sometimes called a **Clause**. **Clause**³ comes from a word meaning *shut*. A Clause is like one of the rooms of a house. A Subordinate Sentence cannot be used alone, but the principal sentence is complete in itself.

Subordinate Sentences or Clauses are of three kinds: *Noun Sentences, Adjective Sentences, and Adverbial Sentences.*

A **Noun Sentence or Clause** is one which has the power of a Noun.

A Noun Clause—

1. May form the **Subject** of a Sentence: *Who broke the glass* must be ascertained.
2. May form the **Object** of a Sentence: He said *that you were wrong*.
3. May be in **apposition** to some other *Noun* or *Pronoun*: The hope *that he will be pardoned* is now abandoned.
4. May enter into the **Predicate as Complement**: His belief was *that Krishna would succeed*.

Noun Clauses are joined to the principal sentence by Conjunctions, Relative Pronouns, or Interrogatives; as, *that, who, what, where, when, how, &c.* *That* is often omitted before an Objective Clause: I know (*that*) he is right.

An Adjective Clause does the work of an Adjective.

It may—

1. Qualify the **Subject**: He *who restrains his anger* is wise.
2. Qualify the **Object**: They ate all the fruit *which we had gathered*.
3. Enter into the **Predicate**: Govind is a boy *whom you taught*.
4. Enter into the **extension** of the Predicate: The captain went into the ship *which sailed away*.

Adjective Clauses are often introduced by the *Relative Pronoun that*. *Who, which, where, when, &c.*, are also employed. *Who, which, and that*, when in the Objective Case, are often omitted: Is that the boy (*whom*) you saw?

¹ *Com, con, together, phco, to fold.*

² *Sub, under, ordo, order.*

³ *Clausus, shut.*

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in
she worked recalled that Mona had recently seen

An **Adverbial Clause** is one which has the power of an Adverb.

It may be attached to—

1. The **Subject**: To study *when we are unwell* is trying.
2. The **Object**: He likes to play *when school is over*.
3. The **Predicate**: I come *when I can*.
4. A **Participial Clause**: Having finished my work *before he came*, I could leave at once.

Adverbial Clauses may be classified in the same way as simple Adverbs. See page 101.

They are mostly introduced by Adverbs of *time, place, manner, &c.*

Two or more subordinate clauses may depend on the same principal sentence: The carpenter *whom I paid to-day* can go home *when he likes*.

Sometimes one subordinate clause is contained within another which is itself subordinate: Krishna said he would come back *when he had finished the work*.

The same sentence may be *Subordinate* to a principal sentence, and at the same time *principal* to another sentence. In the sentence "The man *who saw* what was done is here," *who saw* is adjectival to the principal sentence and principal to *what was done*.

When some portion of a subordinate clause is *left out*, the sentence is termed *elliptical*: He is stronger than I (am strong).

EXERCISES.

What is a *Complex Sentence*? What does *complex* mean? What does *subordinate* mean? What is a subordinate sentence sometimes called? What is the meaning of *clause*? How do a Subordinate sentence and a Principal sentence differ? Of what three kinds are Subordinate sentences? What is a Noun clause? What may it form, giving examples of each? How are Noun clauses joined to the principal sentence? What is an *Adjective clause*? How may it be employed? Give examples. How are Adjective clauses often introduced? What is an *Adverbial clause*? How are they used? Give examples. How may they also be classified? How are Adverbial clauses mostly introduced? What may depend on one principal sentence? How may a subordinate clause be sometimes contained? When is a clause said to be *elliptical*?

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

In analysing Complex Sentences observe the following rules :—

1. Find out first the *Principal Sentence*.
2. Ascertain the *Dependent Clauses*. To find them look out the *Finite Verbs*; each of them means a clause. If a *Finite Verb* is understood, supply it.
3. Under the head, "Sentences and Clauses," write out the sentences or clauses in the order of prose. If they are long, give the first and last words, marking the omission by asterisks.
4. Find those clauses, if any, which attach themselves to the *Subject* of the principal sentence.
5. Find those clauses, if any, that belong to the *Object* of the principal sentence, or to any other *Noun* or *Pronoun* in it.
6. Look for the clauses that are attached to the *Predicate* of the principal sentence.
7. Classify the clauses according to the *function* they discharge. Does a clause stand for a *Noun*? Does it qualify a *Noun*? Does it limit a *Verb*?

Caution.—Do not be misled by the part of speech which introduces a clause. An *Adverb* may introduce a *Noun* clause or an *Adjective* clause :—

I do not know *where he has gone* (*Noun*).

The place *where it happened* is unknown (*Adj.*).

A *Relative Pronoun* may introduce a *Noun* clause or an *Adjective* clause :—

I have not heard *who he is* (*Noun*).

The thief, *who was a servant*, is caught (*Adj.*).

8. Pick out the connective word by which any one clause is joined to another. If understood, supply it. *What*, equal to *that which*, enters both into the principal sentence and the *Adjective* clause.

The tabular form is generally preferable in the Analysis of Complex Sentences. Two examples are given,

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many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low-

EXAMPLE OF ANALYSIS OF A COMPLEX SENTENCE.

"General Washington, who beheld all day, with unspeakable anguish, the useless slaughter of his brave troops, skillfully withdrew his army, which was dispirited by defeat, from Long Island to New York, at night under cover of a dense fog."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject with Enlargements.	Predicate.	Objects with Enlargements.	Extension of Predicate.
(1) General Washington skillfully withdrew his army, from Long Island to New York, at night under cover of a dense fog.	Principal Sentence.	Washington General	withdrew	his army	skillfully from Long Island to New York, at night, under cover of a dense fog. (Adverbial phrases.)
(2) who beheld all day, with unspeakable anguish, the useless slaughter of his brave troops,	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>Washington</i> (1).	who	beheld	the useless slaughter of his brave troops	with unspeakable anguish. (Adverbial phrase.)
(3) which was dispirited by defeat.	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>army</i> (1)	which	was dispirited,		by defeat. (Adverbial phrase.)

EXAMPLE OF ANALYSIS.

This celebrated city, which contains many interesting objects, lies on the northern bank of the Ganges, and is frequented by numerous pilgrims, from all parts of India, some of whom bring valuable offerings.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject with Enlargements.	Predicate.	Object with Enlargements.	Extension of Predicate.
(1) This celebrated city lies on the northern bank of the Ganges,	Principal Sentence.	This celebrated city	lies		on the northern bank of the Ganges
(2) which contains many interesting objects,	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>city</i> (1).	which	contains	many interesting objects.	
(3) and (city) is frequented by numerous pilgrims from all parts of India,	Principal Sentence, co-ordinate with (1).	(city)	is frequented		by numerous pilgrims from all parts of India
(4) some of whom bring valuable offerings.	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>pilgrims</i> (3).	some of whom	bring	valuable offerings	

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many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where
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EXERCISES.

What is the first step to be taken in analysing a Complex sentence? How are the dependent clauses to be ascertained? What should next be done? If the sentences or clauses are long, what may be done? What should next be ascertained? How are the clauses to be classified? What caution is necessary? What may Adverbs and Relative Pronouns introduce? What should be picked out?

Analyse the following Complex Sentences:—

Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

The severity of this remark I bore patiently, because I knew that it was just.

I was happy at finding a place where I could lose my fears in desperation.

Sir Isaac Newton was the first who showed that every ray of light from the sun consists of different colours.

Having visited the house where my grandfather was born, we went round the town, whilst my father called upon his lawyer.

When he was born, who brought him up, how he lived, and whither he went after he was lost sight of, we are not told.

As I was going out with that resolution, I was met at the door by the captain of a ship with whom I had formerly some little acquaintance, and he agreed to be my companion.

Alas! the meanest herb that scents the gale,
The lowliest flower that blossoms in the vale,
Even when it dies, at Spring's sweet call renews
To second life its odours and its hues.

III. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE consists of two or more simple sentences, each complete in itself, generally joined together by a Conjunction or Relative Pronoun; as, My house was sold, *and* I left the country; This is the book *which* I lost.

The simple sentences of a Compound Sentence are usually called *Clauses*.

As the sentences are independent, or of the same rank, they are called *co-ordinate*, and the Conjunctions that join them are called *co-ordinative* (see page 109).

Co-ordinate Sentences may be divided into the following principal classes:—**Cumulative, Adversative, Illative, and Alternative.**

The relations between the members of a Compound Sentence may be :—

1. **Cumulative**,¹ as when one sentence is simply added to another : Govind rode *and* Rama walked.

The Conjunctions most frequently used to express this relation are : *and, also, as well as, besides, likewise, moreover, &c.*

Sometimes the Conjunctions are omitted, and the co-ordinate sentences are separated by commas or semicolons ; as, I came, I saw, I conquered. Such sentences are sometimes said to be *collateral*, or placed *side by side*.

2. **Adversative**,² as when one co-ordinate sentence is opposed to another ; He could read, *but* he could not write.

The chief Adversative Conjunctions are : *but, yet, still, however, nevertheless, on the other hand, notwithstanding.*

3. **Illative**,³ as when one sentence expresses the cause, and the other the effect of that cause : It rained heavily ; *therefore* we went indoors.

The chief Conjunctions of this class are : *therefore, wherefore, consequently, hence, accordingly, for, since, inasmuch as.*

In some cases *for* is simply a Preposition, and the sentence is not *Illative* ; as, He left the city *for* the country. The sense in which connections are used must be considered.

4. **Alternative**,⁴ as when one statement *or* the other is to be taken : Win this fight *or* die.

The Conjunctions of this kind are : *or, else, otherwise.* Where both statements are denied, *neither—nor* are used.

¹ Adding.

² Opposite.

³ Denoting an inference.

⁴ Offering a choice.

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low-

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

Contracted Sentences are those in which the repetition of Subject or Predicate is avoided by the use of a Conjunction; as, I gave money and (I gave) clothing; either you (must pay) or I must pay; as, He *followed* the thief and *caught* him.

One Subject may have two or more Predicates; One Predicate may have two or more Objects; as, I saw *lions and tigers*.

Sometimes two or more nouns are the *Conjoint Subject*; as, Rama and Krishna are cousins. This is not a *Contracted Sentence*.

ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Compound Sentences are analysed as Simple Sentences, with the connecting link pointed out.

1. Add a column to the table previously used for the connecting word.
2. Distinguish between subordinate clauses and co-ordinate sentences.
3. Wherever there is a contracted subject, predicate, or object, treat it as simple, and place against it the word "Contracted."
4. Parenthetical sentences are independent of the constructions in which they occur, and should be dealt with separately.

Parenthetical sentences are those put in among others complete without them: Thou shalt be seen (though with some short parenthesis between) high on the throne of wit.

Sentences may be partly Compound and partly Complex; and a mixed sentence of this kind may be joined to another mixed sentence by some co-ordinative Conjunction. But the same principles of analysis apply to all.

The following sentence is analysed in Tabular form:—

Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever,
Do noble things, not dream them all day long;
And so make life, death, and that vast forever,
One grand, sweet song.¹

¹ From Canon Daniel's Grammar, p. 150. The compiler is indebted to the same work for several suggestions under the head of "Analysis."

Sentences and Clauses.	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Con-necting word.	Subject.	Predicate.	Completion of Predicate.	Extension of Predicate.
(a) Be good, sweet maid	Co-ordinate with (b), (d)		(thou)	be good		
(b) Let (them) be clever	Co-ordinate with (a)	and	(you)	let	(them) (Dir. Obj.) be clever (Ind. Obj.)	
(c) who will (be clever)	Adjective to (b)		who	will—with	be clever (Ind. Obj.)	
(d) Do (thou) noble things.	Co-ordinate with (c) and (b)		(thou)	do	noble things (Dir. Obj.)	
(e) (Do) not dream them all day long.	Co-ordinate with (a), (b), and (d)		(thou)	(do) not dream	them (Dir. Obj.)	all day long (time)
(f) And so make life ...one grand, sweet song.	Co-ordinate with (a), (b), (d) (e)	and	(thou)	make	life, death, and that vast forever (Dir. Obj.) one grand sweet song (Fac. Obj.)	

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the ceiling a
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they are, alas,
—she knew

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low-

EXERCISES.

What is a *Compound Sentence*? What are independent sentences of the same rank said to be? What are the principal classes of Co-ordinate Sentences? What is a *Copulative Sentence*? What are the Conjunctions most frequently employed in Copulative Sentences? What are *Collateral Sentences*? What is an *Adversative Sentence*? What are the chief *Adversative Conjunctions*? What is an *Illative Sentence*? What are the chief *Illative Conjunctions*? What is an *Alternative Sentence*? What are the *Alternative Conjunctions*? What are *Contracted Sentences*? What is a *Conjoint Subject*? How are *Compound Sentences* analysed? What additional column should be added? What should be distinguished? How should a contracted subject, &c., be treated? What are *Parenthetical Sentences*? How should they be treated? How may sentences be mixed?

Analyse the following Compound Sentences.—

Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
For loan oft loses both itself and friend.

He will act honourably in this matter, or I shall be greatly disappointed.

Can honour's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or flattery soothe the dull cold ear of death?

The dying king begged to be attended by his confessor, but she denied him even this comfort.

The vine still clings to the mouldering wall,
But at every gust the dead leaves fall.

The faculty of imagination is the great spring of human activity, and the principal source of human improvement.

Our deeds shall travel with us from afar,
And what we have been makes us what we are.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

SYNTHESIS is the opposite of *Analysis*. The latter breaks the whole up into parts; the former combines the parts into a whole.

When there are several simple sentences relating to one topic to be thrown into one expanded sentence, the first

step is to pick out the *Subject*, *Predicate*, and *Object*. Next, the remaining sentences should be converted into their *ADJUNCTS*, being set down as enlargements of the Subject, the Object, or extensions of the Predicate.

The above is the general rule, but it will be rendered clearer by illustration under four headings.

1. CHANGING COMPOUND SENTENCES INTO SIMPLE SENTENCES.

The independent sentences that go to make up a compound sentence are usually joined together by co-ordinating Conjunctions, which may be *Cumulative*, *Adversative* or *Disjunctive*, or *Illative* (see page 110). As a simple sentence has only one Finite Verb, any such in the clauses must be changed into some other part of speech, the meaning being preserved. Only the Finite Verb in the most important clause should be retained.

The following examples will show how the change is to be effected :—

- { Krishna paid the money and went home.
- { Krishna having paid the money, went home.
- { He is very rich, but he is not happy.
- { In spite of his great riches, he is not happy.
- { Govind was sick ; therefore he could not come.
- { On account of sickness, Govind could not come.
- { Do your work, or lose your pay.
- { Do your work to avoid losing your pay.
- { Or, Not doing your work, you lose your pay.

EXERCISES.

What is *Synthesis*? How does it differ from *Analysis*? What course is to be followed in combining several simple sentences into one expanded sentence? How are the independent sentences in a compound sentence usually joined? To what four classes may they belong? How many Finite Verbs has a simple sentence? What must be done to change a compound sentence into a simple sentence? What Finite Verb is to be retained?

Change the following compound sentences into simple sentences :—

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low-

Wisdom is the principal thing : therefore get wisdom.
 I know the man well, for he is my neighbour.
 The winds roared and the rain fell.
 The way was long, the wind was cold.
 As he was very sleepy, he lay down on his bed.
 He has read a great deal, but he is wanting in judgment.
 A dispute arose among the brothers about the property, and they
 went to law.
 His father tried to wean him from his bad habits, but it was all
 in vain.
 You must study hard, or you will fail at the examination.
 He has risen rapidly, because he has made himself useful.
 Speak the truth, or you will not be trusted.
 He neither came himself, nor sent any one to take his place.

2. CHANGING COMPLEX SENTENCES INTO SIMPLE SENTENCES.

The subordinate clauses belong to the three following classes :—1. The Noun Clause. 2. The Adjective Clause. 3. The Adverbial Clause. The Finite Verbs in the subordinate clauses must either be removed altogether or changed into some other part of speech. Only the Finite Verb of the principal sentence may remain. While subordinate clauses may be changed in form, the *meaning* must be preserved.

The Noun Clause.

The Noun Clause may be introduced by the Conjunction *that* in the sense of apposition ; by a Relative Conjunction ; or Relative Pronoun whose antecedent is understood.

The following are examples :—

- { That he is a good English scholar is allowed by all.
- { His good English scholarship is allowed by all.
- { Rama was not aware that he had failed.
- { Rama was not aware of his failure.
- { Where we are I cannot tell.
- { I cannot tell our position.
- { Tell me what you think of him.
- { Tell me your opinion of him.

The Adjective Clause.

An Adjective Clause is introduced either by a Relative Pronoun or by a Relative Conjunction. The Antecedent is expressed in both cases.

- { The accused, who was conscious of his innocence, made no defence.
- { The accused, being conscious of his innocence, made no defence.
- { The house in which I now live is very convenient.
- { My present house is very convenient.
- { I have no appointment that I can give you.
- { I have no appointment to give you.

The Adverbial Clause.

The Adverbial Clause is generally introduced by one of the Subordinative Conjunctions.

- { Govind was pleased that he had been successful.
- { Govind was pleased at having been successful.
- { The father was grieved because his son had failed.
- { The father was grieved on account of his son's failure.
- { He toiled hard that he might be rich.
- { He toiled hard in order to be rich.

EXERCISES.

- Did he say that he would do it to-morrow?
- Delay not till to-morrow what should be done to-day.
- What he wants in experience he will supply by diligence.
- The person to whom I gave the money took it to the bank.
- He came nearer that he might hear better.
- Wisdom and worth were all he had.
- Heaven helps those who help themselves.
- It is plain that nothing can be done for him.
- We must ask when the college re-opens.
- The servant himself did not deny that he had been sometimes disobedient to his master.
- The evil that men do lives after them.
- The explanation he gave of his misconduct was insufficient.
- A letter from his father brought him the sad news that his mother had died.
- Will you rest upon my little bed? said the spider to the fly.
- Do you know the time when the holidays are to begin?

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

As they left the darkening heath,
 More desolate grew the strife of death.
 Every man will be thy fiend
 While thou hast wherewith to spend.
 There the weary pilgrim rests
 From all the toils he bore.
 Lives of great men all remind us
 We can make our lives sublime.

3. COMBINING SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO A COMPOUND SENTENCE.

The simple sentences must be joined by Conjunctions according to the sense. Where several statements are made referring to the same thing, *and* is omitted before every sentence except the last.

Examples.

1. The dog is found in every part of the world. The dog is intelligent. The dog is faithful. The dog is sometimes cruelly treated.

The dog, found in every part of the world, is intelligent and faithful; but it is sometimes cruelly treated.

2. A crane was standing by the side of a tank. The crane saw a fish in the water. The crane waited the approach of the fish. The crane snapped up the fish.

A crane, standing by the side of a tank, saw a fish in the water; waited its approach, and then snapped it up.

Combine the following —

Beauty will fade. Learning will vanish away. The whole world will perish. Virtue will remain for ever.

India is situated in the south of Asia. The climate of India is hot. India is peopled by many nations.

The river rose. The river overflowed its banks. The water swept away the houses of the village. Many persons were drowned.

The judge is upright. He treats all with civility. He makes no distinction between the rich and the poor. He will not allow the guilty to escape justice.

4. COMBINING SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO A COMPLEX OR MIXED SENTENCE.

Mixed sentences are partly *Compound*, partly *Complex*.

As already explained, the Subject, Predicate, and Object should first be ascertained, and the remaining clauses attached to them as Enlargements or Extensions.

The Noun Clause.

The Noun Clause is introduced by the Conjunction *that* in the sense of apposition, or by a Relative Conjunction or Pronoun whose antecedent is understood.

That is frequently omitted before an Objective clause.

Examples.

- { He is innocent. This is certain.
- { That he is innocent is certain.
- { He has never been seen there. This is an important fact.
- { The fact that he has never been seen there is important.
- { He died somewhere. The place was never known.
- { The place where he died was never known.
- { The boat was leaky. The boat was sinking. Perceiving this, he made for the shore.
- { Perceiving that his boat was leaky and sinking, he made for the shore.
- { He will be here soon. I know.
- { I know (that) he will be here soon.

The Adjective Clause.

The Adjective Clause always qualifies some Noun or Pronoun. It may be introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb.

- { We are to leave. The time is not decided.
- { The time when we are to leave is not decided.
- { You gave me a message. I have told it to him.
- { I have told him the message you gave me.
- { I found him in the house. He had formerly lived in that house.
- { I found him in the house where he had formerly lived.

The Adverbial Clause.

The Adverbial Clause qualifies a Verb. It is introduced by some Subordinative Conjunction.

- { He studied night and day. At last he was successful.
- { He studied night and day till at last he was successful.

many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

- { He wrote his exercise very carefully. He did not wish to fail.
- { He wrote his exercise very carefully lest he should fail.
- { He has been unsuccessful more than once. He is not discouraged.
- { Although he has been unsuccessful more than once, he is not discouraged.
- { The school was dismissed. He went home.
- { He went home when the school was dismissed.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES.

Combine the following sentences —

Their progress was slow. Their oxen were tired. They had to stop at every village.

The elephant charged the men three times. Her fury was of no avail. She became weaker from loss of blood. At length she fell down dead.

A widow went to a judge. She asked him to punish her enemy. The judge was a wicked man. The judge refused to listen to the widow.

Juan Fernandez is an island in the Pacific Ocean. It was discovered by a Spanish navigator. He gave it his own name. He formed an establishment. The establishment was afterwards abandoned.

A deceitful man must always be on his guard. He must watch himself carefully not to contradict his own pretensions. He acts an unnatural part. He must, therefore, put a restraint upon himself.

The weather was stormy. The rain fell in torrents. Some ships, shattered by the tempest, sank with their crews. The men began to lose heart.

Some men are born to teach. Others are born to receive instruction. Some are born to work. Others are born to enjoy in idleness the fruits of industry. Some are born to govern. Others are born to obey.

Whang, the miller, was naturally avaricious. Nobody loved money better than he. Nobody respected more those that had it.

PARAPHRASING.

Paraphrase¹ comes from a Greek word, meaning to say the same thing in other words. Paraphrasing is explaining the sense of a passage more fully in other words.

¹ *Para*, beside; *phrasis*, speaking.

The objects of paraphrasing are to oblige the student to examine closely the exact meaning of every word and phrase, and to show the teacher whether the passage has been fully understood.

Sometimes passages from good prose writing are prescribed for paraphrase; but generally they are selected from poetical writers. Poetry is often more compressed than prose, so that the meaning requires expansion to render it clear. The order of the words is also frequently involved for the sake of rhyme.

A good paraphrase should express the exact meaning of the original, and nothing more. One word should not be simply substituted for another of the same meaning, but the whole should be re-cast.

A few general directions may be given:—

1. Read carefully over the passage until the meaning of the whole has been thoroughly grasped.

2. Next examine each sentence separately, transposing it into the order of prose, and supplying any ellipsis necessary to complete the sense.

3. Examine the words and phrases in each sentence to understand their exact meaning, and syntactical construction. See how each can best be changed from the direct to the indirect form, from active to passive, from one kind of sentence into another, &c. It is not necessary to find an equivalent for every word. Any decided change for the worse should be avoided.

4. The explanations of words and phrases should be arranged into one connected whole, the proper subordination of the various parts being observed.

5. No idea in the original should be omitted in the paraphrase, nor must anything new be added. The paraphrase ought generally to be about the same length as the passage paraphrased. It may, however, be longer than the original, if the meaning cannot otherwise be made clear.

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The following example may be quoted —

Like a corpse the grisly warrior
Looks from out his helm of steel;
But no word he speaks in answer.

Like a corpse = as pale as death.
Grisly = grim.
helm of steel = steel helmet.

Paraphrase

The grim soldier, as pale as death, looks at them through his steel helmet, but answers nothing.

Besides the advantages already mentioned, paraphrasing tends to improve the taste and give a better command over the English language. It has, however, its drawbacks. The changes made are generally for the worse. Ascham compares them to turning gold into brass. The passages presented are often in poetry. The student is apt to write a kind of poetic prose, prejudicial to the formation of a good style. *Translation* is preferable to *paraphrase*.

TRANSLATION.

This is an exercise which should receive great attention in English schools. Although a pupil may be able to read a sentence, to write it correctly from dictation, and to give the meanings of the different words, unless he can translate the whole, his knowledge of it is imperfect.

Translating word for word is the chief fault of young students. It has been explained that the usual order in an English sentence is, Subject, Verb, Object; whereas, in the Indian vernaculars, it is, Subject, Object, Verb. There are other important differences. In the Indian vernaculars the subordinate clause precedes the principal one; the cause precedes the effect; the reason precedes the inference; the order of time is strictly followed. In English the practice is generally different. Unless the variations or idioms are taken into account, translations will be unintelligible.

1. The whole of a passage prescribed for translation should first be read over very carefully to understand its general meaning.

2. Each sentence should be taken up in order, and translated with a careful regard to idiom. It should be easily intelligible without reference to the original. It should convey the whole meaning and nothing more.

3. As a rule, the simplest words are the best. Young students sometimes make themselves ridiculous by using long words, the meaning of which they do not fully understand.

The Indian vernaculars are often despised by students. On the contrary, they deserve careful study. It should be the ambition of every student to be able to write his own language in a simple, idiomatic, readable style. He might thus aid in enriching it, either by original compositions or by adaptations of English works.

DERIVATION.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

THE ARYANS.

At a very early period the ancestors of the Aryan Hindus, the Persians, and most of the nations of Europe, lived together, probably in Central Asia, speaking the same language, and worshipping the same God under the same name, *Dyaus Pitar*, meaning Heaven Father. Language is a clear proof of this. There are hundreds of common words in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English, showing the affinities of these languages. The following are a few examples :—

<i>Sanskrit</i>	<i>Greek.</i>	<i>Latin.</i>	<i>English.</i>
pitar	pater	pater	father
mâtar	mêtēr	mater	mother
bhrâtar	phratēr (clan)	frater	brother
divya	dios	divus	divine
stai, târa	astēr	astrum	star
dvi	duo	duo	two
saptan	hepta	septem	seven
dasan	deka	decem	ten

she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and lo

Another proof of relationship is that they formed their inflections after a similar manner. The letter *s* is used both in Sanskrit and English in forming the Possessive Case of Nouns. In the comparison of Adjectives the Sanskrit terminations *-tara* and *-ishtha* correspond to the English terminations *-ther* and *-est*. The third person singular of the Sanskrit Verb *sidati* corresponds to the English *sitteth*.

This ancient people called themselves *Aryans*. It is supposed to be connected with the root *AR*, which, in Greek and Latin, means *plough*. They, perhaps, took this name as cultivators, to distinguish them from the wandering Tartar tribes. In modern Sanskrit, *arya* means *noble*.

At a remote period the Aryan tribes separated from one another to seek new settlements. The Hindus and Persians went eastward; the other tribes, at different times, travelled westward to Europe.

The Celts, or Kelts, found farthest west, were probably the first Aryans who entered Europe. At one period they occupied a great part of the continent. They were driven westward by successive invasions of other tribes, called Teutons or Germans, Italians, and Greeks. The Slavonians, to whom the Russians belong, took a more northerly course.

DIVISIONS OF THE ARYAN LANGUAGES.

The Aryan or Indo-European languages are divided into the following principal groups:—

Asiatic Languages.

1. **INDIC**, including Sanskrit and the modern languages, sprung from it; as, Bengali, Hindi, Urdu, Mahratti, Gujarati, Sinhalese, &c.
2. **IRANIC**, including Persian, Pushtu, the language of the Afghans, and Armenian.

European Languages.

1. KELTIC, containing the Welsh, Irish, and Gaelic.
2. ITALIC, including Latin and the languages sprung from it; as, Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, &c.
3. HELLENIC, to which belong ancient and modern Greek.
4. SLAVONIC, containing Russian, Polish, Lithuanian, &c. The Lithuanian has a closer resemblance to Sanskrit than any other European language.
5. TEUTONIC, including three principal branches:—
 - (1) SCANDINAVIAN, to which belong Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish.
 - (2) HIGH GERMAN, as spoken in the Highlands of Germany.
 - (3) LOW GERMAN, including Dutch, Flemish, and English. It was called Low German, because it was originally spoken along the low-lying shores of the German Ocean and Baltic Sea.

COMPOSITION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

English belongs to the Low German division of the Teutonic group. It most resembles the Dutch, but it has more or less in common with all the Aryan languages.

Britain was originally peopled by Kelts. The first Low German tribe to come over was the Angles, from the south of Denmark. Their first invasion was about 449 A.D. They were followed by two other tribes, called the Jutes and Saxons. The latter have left their names in Sussex (South Saxons), Essex (East Saxons), &c. But the three tribes became one people in Britain, and called their new country *Ængla-land*, and their language *Ænglisc*.

Old English differed much from Modern English. Like Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, it was rich in inflections. Nouns and pronouns had five cases, and the pronouns had a dual number. There were several declensions, one of which is given at page 35. Adjectives were varied in number, gender, and case, to agree with nouns. Verbs

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had several inflections, which have been lost. Distinct words have replaced grammatical endings.

The English language now includes about 140,000 words, the great bulk of which have been derived from Latin and Greek, but in structure and idiom it still resembles Old English. The most common and useful words, the strongest expressions of love or hatred, the language of proverbs, remain the same as those used by the Low German invaders.

The successive additions made to the language will be briefly noticed.

Keltic Element.—The original inhabitants of Britain left behind them some words which are still in use. Some of them are the names of implements with which servants would have most to do ; as basket, mop, mattock, pail, pan. Some mountains and places still retain their Keltic names, as Bennevis, Thames, Kent.

Scandinavian Element.—The Danish and Norwegian invaders introduced some Scandinavian words ; as dairy, fellow, gait, dredge, rove. The termination *son* appended to names is Scandinavian. The names of many places are from the same source ; as, dale (valley), gate, ness (headland), wick, wich (bay), &c.

Latin and Greek.—I. The Romans who held England for nearly four centuries at the beginning of the Christian era, gave names to a few places. *Castra*, a camp, is found in Lancaster ; *portus*, a harbour, in Portsmouth ; *strata*, a paved road, in street.

II. The Roman missionaries who brought Christianity into England, 596 A D., introduced many words, chiefly of a religious character, or relating to natural objects previously unknown to the English. Such additions continued to be made during the four succeeding centuries :—

Altar, creed, cross, preach, saint, apostle, church, psalm.

Cedar, pepper, lily, sponge, fork, candle, school.

III. The Normans, from France, conquered England in 1066. They made their own language, Norman-French, derived from the Latin, to be spoken at courts, in colleges, and schools. But although many words were adopted, the English clung to their own tongue. In 1362 it was ordered that law pleadings should be conducted in English. The words introduced referred chiefly to war, religion, law, and hunting; as, arms, battle, lance, soldier; friar, piety, prayer, relic; attorney, plaintiff, statute; brace, falcon, venison.

IV. After the revival of learning in Europe in the sixteenth century, many words were taken directly from the Latin, and a smaller number from the Greek. In spelling, they show a much closer resemblance to the originals than those previously introduced. The following are examples:—Abdicate, dimensions, filial, isthmus, manuscript, participate, vivid.

Words required to denote discoveries in science and art are now chiefly adopted from Greek and Latin; as, thermometer, photograph, locomotive, terminus.

French Element.—A number of Latin words have altered, having come into English through French; thus,

<i>Latin.</i>	<i>French.</i>	<i>English.</i>
caput	chef	chief
carmen	charme	charm
nutrire	nourir	nourish
pauper	pauvre	poor

Other words have been directly adopted, and more or less assimilated. Some retain their French pronunciation and accent-marks or are printed in italics, showing that they are not yet regarded as fully naturalised; thus, aide-de-camp, beau, belle, chateau, fête, soirée.

Miscellaneous Additions.—Words are adopted from many other languages than those already mentioned. The following are examples:—

AMERICAN.—Alpaca, cannibal, canoe, lama, tobacco.

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she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

ARABIC.—Admiral, algebra, chemistry, harem, sofa, zero.

CHINESE.—Gong, nankin, tea, typhoon.

GERMAN.—Plunder, quartz, swindler, waltz, zinc.

HEBREW.—Amen, cherub, cinnamon, jubilee, Sabbath, seraph, shekel.

HINDU.—Banian, betel, calico, cooche, muslin, raja, rupee, sugar.

ITALIAN.—Bandit, cameo, cartoon, gondola, portico, umbrella.

MALAY.—Bamboo, mango, orang-outang, sago.

PERSIAN.—Bazaar, caravan, jackal, jasmine, pasha, shawl.

PORTUGUESE.—Caste, fetish, mandarin, pagoda, verandah, yarn.

SPANISH.—Alligator, cargo, cigar, cork, grandee, mosquito, potato.

TURKISH.—Bey, cadì, horde, khan, seraglio, tulip, turban.

The English language, in structure, is Teutonic; but as regards its vocabulary, it is a **Mixed Language**.

Pure English words are in many cases monosyllabic. They include Pronouns, most Prepositions and Conjunctions; most words with English prefixes and suffixes; and many words connected with everyday life. They occur in every sentence.

THREE PERIODS OF ENGLISH.

The language is divided into three periods, Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.

OLD ENGLISH extends from A.D. 450—1250. The English of this period, from its numerous inflections and strange spelling, is quite unintelligible to an ordinary reader.

MIDDLE ENGLISH extends from A.D. 1250—1460. Inflections now began to disappear, but the spelling still differed from Modern English. The following lines are

from Chaucer, who lived about the middle of this period :—

A poure wydow somdel¹ stope² in age,
Was whilom duellyng in a nauwe³ cotage,
Besyde a grove, stondyng in a dale.

By the invention of printing in the fifteenth century the language became more fixed. By the end of the period, the inflections were much the same as at present.

MODERN ENGLISH extends from A.D. 1460 to the present time. During this period the spelling was fixed by printing, and the revival of Classical learning added a large number of new words.

WORD-BUILDING ;

OR,

FORMATION OF WORDS.

A word in its simplest form is called a **Root**; as, *man*, *good*, *see*. It is also called a **Primitive**, or first word.

The proper *root* may be different from the simplest form of the word now in use. *Tal.* number, is the root of *tale*, *tell*, *talk*. The *stem*⁴ is the root with some change. *Love* (= *lov* + *e*) is the stem of *lov*. It is to the stem that all inflections are added. Thus, to *love* we add *d* for the past tense.

From the simple or primitive words, called roots, we form other words chiefly in two ways :

1. *By adding to the word another word*, as, black-board, ink-stand, door-way, hand-writing, &c. Words so formed are called **Compound Words**.

2. *By changes in a word*.

These may be of two kinds :

(1) *A change may be made in the root*; as, *strike*, *stroke*, *bind*, *bond*; *food*, *feed*.

(2) *By adding some letter or letters either at the beginning or end of a word*; as, *like*, *unlike*; *ever*, *never*; *man*, *manly*; *good*, *goodness*.

¹ Somewhat.

² Advanced.

³ Narrow.

⁴ The stem of a tree is the thick part from which the branches spring.

The letters placed *before* are called **Prefixes**¹; those placed *after* are called **Postfixes**,² or **Suffixes**,³ or **Affixes**.⁴

Words formed from other words are called **Derivatives**.

Derivative means drawn from; like a channel from a river.

Words formed by changes in the root are called **Primary Derivatives**; those formed by means of Prefixes or Postfixes are called **Secondary Derivatives**.

EXERCISES.

What is the *root* of a word? What is it also called? What is the *stem*? How are other words chiefly formed from roots? What are words so formed called? What changes may there be in a word? What are letters placed before called? What are those placed behind called? What are words formed from other words called? What is the meaning of *Derivative*? What two kinds of Derivatives are there? How are they distinguished?

Arrange the following words in two columns—*Primary and Derivative*:—

Grindstone, sun, horseman, manhood, ashore, so, afternoon, mile, town, sevenfold, yesterday, eye, of, foremost, hope, less, undone, midway, near, five, thirteen, racehorse, inkstand, child-like, sky-blue, lovely.

FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

Compound Nouns may consist of the following:—

1. Two Nouns placed side by side:

Railway, teaspoon, cowherd, housetop, rosebud, bloodhound, lapdog, eyelid.

Many Compound Nouns are formed in this way. Usually the first word qualifies the second. When the connection between the two is very close, they are written as one word. When such is not the case, they are separated by the mark -, called a hyphen; as, dog-cart, foot-race, finger-post.

2. A Noun preceded by an Adjective:

Nobleman, blackbird, freeman, redbreast, greenhouse, quick-silver, highland, sixpence.

¹ *Pre*, means before.

³ *Sub, suf*, means under, after.

² *Post*, means after.

⁴ *Aff. ad, to*.

3. A Noun preceded by a Verb :

Pickpocket, telltale, turncoat, grindstone, stopgap, spendthrift, catchpenny, breakfast, wagtail.

In these cases the Verb part is Transitive, and usually governs the Noun.

A Noun preceded by a Gerund may be included under this head : looking-glass, bathing-place, writing-desk, walking-stick, spelling-book.

4. A Noun preceded by an Adverb or Preposition :

Bypath, forethought, aftergrowth, inside, outside, overcharge, afternoon, onlooker.

5. By the union of other parts of speech :

Outlay, runaway, drawback, income, hearsay, onset, go-between, farewell, welfare.

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

Compound Adjectives may consist of—

1. Noun and Adjective :

Sky-blue, blood-red, sea-green, snow-white, nut-brown, ice-cold, blood-heat, purse-proud, breast-high, way-weary, blood-thirsty.

2. Adjective and Adjective :

Blue-black, red-hot, dead-alive, worldly-wise.

3. Noun and Participle :

Heart-rending, spirit-stirring, time-serving, sea-faring, house-keeping, moth-eaten, earth-born, tempest-tossed, way-laid, copper-fastened.

4. Verb and Adverb :

Underdone, outspoken, over-fed, ill-pleased, well-bred, thorough-bred.

COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

See pp. 54, 58, and 60 for **Reflexive Pronouns**, **Compound Relatives**, and **Compound Interrogatives**.

COMPOUND VERBS.

Compound Verbs may consist of—

1. Noun and Verb :

Backbite, browbeat, waylay, henpeck, hoodwink.

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many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop whe
she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and lov

2. Adjective and Verb :

Whitewash, fulfil, rough-hew.

3. Adverb and Verb :

Foretell, outbid, overthrow, cross question, outdo.

COMPOUND ADVERBS.

Compound Adverbs may consist of—

1. Noun and Noun

Lengthways, endways

2. Noun and Adjective :

Head foremost, breast high, meanwhile, always, sometimes, otherwise.

3 Noun and Preposition :

Indeed, upstairs, indoors, above board, outside.

4. Adjective and Adverb :

Somewhere, everywhere, somehow.

5. Adverb and Adverb :

Henceforward, thereabout

6. Adverb and Preposition :

Henceafter, thereon, where upon, forthwith, thereby.

7. Phrase Adverbs. See page 103.**COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS.**

Outside, inside, throughout, within, without, into, upon, are examples, with phrase-prepositions.

COMPOUND CONJUNCTIONS.

Whereat, whereby, however, moreover, otherwise and likewise, are examples.

EXERCISES

How may *Compound Nouns* be formed ? Give examples of each. When two Nouns are placed side by side, what does the first generally do to the second ? When is a hyphen inserted ? When a Verb precedes a Noun, what does the Verb usually do to the Noun ? Give examples of a Noun preceded by a Gerund. What

may *Compound Adjectives* consist of? Give examples of each
 What may *Compound Verbs* consist of? Give examples What
 may *Compound Adverbs* consist of? Give examples Give
 examples of *Compound Prepositions* and *Compound Conjunctions*

Decompose the following words, and give the part of speech of each element —

Twopence, quicksilver, greyhound, outbid, inside, bluebell,
 railway, inlet, thunderstorm, scabber, forethought, upright,
 whitewash, farewell, hereupon, howbeit, however, nobleman,
 forthwith, pickpocket, somewhere, thereby, without.

PRIMARY DERIVATIVES

Primary Derivatives are formed by making some change in the body of the root

Nouns.

1 Some Nouns have been formed from Verbs by changing the inside vowel —

Bite, bit, drive, drove, bless, bliss, sing, song, strike, stroke.

2 A change is sometimes made in the final consonant sound —

Speak, speech; prove, proof; advise, advice; live, life; dig, ditch, practise, practice.

3. In some cases both sounds, vowel and consonant, are changed —

Choose, choice; lose, loss, live, life, clothe, cloth.

Adjectives.

Adjectives are formed by changing the vowel or the final consonant of the root —

Heat, hot, fill, full, pride, proud; milk, milch.

Verbs.

1 Verbs are formed from Nouns by changing the vowel sound —

Blood, bleed, knot, knit; gold, gild; food, feed; land, bind.

2. By a change in the final consonant sound —

Price, prize, thief, thieve; half, halve; sooth, soothe.

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 many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the
 she worked recalled that Mona had received

3. By a change in both sounds, vowel and consonant :—

Bath, bathe ; breath, breathe ; glass, glaze.

By the above changes some Intransitive Verbs receive a Transitive or Causal sense :—

<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>	<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>
Fall	fell	Rise	raise
Drink	drench	Lie	lay
Droop	drop	Sit	set
Stoop	stop	Cling	clench

EXERCISES.

What are *Primary Derivatives* ? In what three ways are Nouns formed from Verbs ? Give examples of each. How are *Adjectives* formed ? Give examples. In what three ways may Verbs be formed ? Give examples. What do some Intransitive Verbs become by these changes ?

From what Verbs are the following Noun-derivatives formed ?

Seat, speech, ditch, choice, life, brood, sit, breath, belief, proof, bond, writ, seed, flood, deed.

Form Verbs from the following words :—

Calf, wreath, cloth, dog, drop, lie, sop, rest, reel, wink, shelf, drag, wring.

SECONDARY DERIVATIVES.

Secondary Derivatives are formed from primary words by adding letters either at the beginning or end of words, called **Prefixes** or **Suffixes**.

Prefixes and Suffixes, like the words themselves, are of three classes—of English, Latin, or Greek origin. Only the first are noticed at present.

ENGLISH PREFIXES.

A has several meanings. The following are some of the principal :—

1. As a corrupted form of *an*, it is prefixed to nouns and adjectives ; as, *abed, afoot, ashore, asleep*.

2. When prefixed to certain words it means *off, up, from* ; as, *awake, arise, alight, afar*.

3. An intensive force ; as, *ahungered, aweary, athirst, abide*.

After, *following*; as, *afternoon*, *afterthought*.

All, *all*: *Almighty*, *almost*, *alone*.

At, *at*; *atone*.

Be, corrupted from *by*, has several meanings:—

1. It changes nouns and adjectives into transitive verbs; as, *befriend*, *becalm*, *beguile*. In *behead* it has a privative force.

2. It turns some intransitive verbs into transitive; as, *bemoan*, *bespeak*, *befall*.

3. It intensifies the force of transitive verbs; as, *bedaub*, *besmear*, *beseech*, *besprinkle*.

4. Prefixed to nouns and adjectives, it forms adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions; as, *besides*, *beyond*, *between*, *betwixt*, *because*, &c.

Em, or **en**, *to make*, *to give*; as, *endear*, *enslave*, *empower*.

For, *through*, *thorough*; as, *forget*, *forgive*. In *forbid*, it has a negative sense.

Fore, *before*; as, *foresee*, *foresight*, *foremost*.

Gain, *against*; as, *gainsay*.

In, *in*; as, *income*, *inborn*, *into*.

Mis (shortened from *miss*), *wrong*; as, *mistake*, *mislead*, *mis-trust*.

N (shortened from *no*), *not*; as, *none*, *neither*, *never*.

Off, *away*; *offshoot*, *offspring*, *offscouring*.

On, *on*; as, *onlooker*, *onset*.

Out, *beyond*; as, *out-bid*, *out-do*, *out-grow*, *out-live*.

Over, *above*, *too much*; as, *overflow*, *overhang*, *overcharge*.

To, *the* or *this*; as, *to-day*, *to-night*, *to-morrow*.

Un has three meanings:—

1. *not*; as, *unclean*, *unkind*, *untruth*, *unrest*.

2. *back*; as, *untie*, *undo*. In *unloose* it is only intensive.

Nouns to which it is prefixed are changed into Verbs; as, *unman*, *unhorse*, *unearth*.

3. *on*; as, *unto*, *until*.

Under, *beneath*, *below*; as, *undersell*, *underground*.

Up, *upward*; as, *uplift*.

With, *back*, *against*; as, *withhold*, *withstand*.

EXERCISES.

What are *Secondary Derivatives*? Name the three Classes of Prefixes and Suffixes? Give the meanings of the different English Prefixes.

Give the meanings of the **English Prefixes** in the following words:—

Ashore, awake, afar, ahungered, afternoon, alone, atone, befriend, behind, befall, besmear, besides, endure, empower, forgive, forbid, foresight, gainsay, mislead, neither, offshoot, income,

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ENGLISH SUFFIXES.

NOUN SUFFIXES.

1. Denoting *agent* or *doer*.

- ar, beggar, liar.
- ard, coward, drunkard, sluggard, wizard.
- art, braggart.
- eer, auctioneer, mutineer.
- er, baker, builder, rider, weaver.
- ier, cashier, clothier, courtier.
- or, sailor, tailor.
- ster, songster, spinster, youngster, gamester.
- yer, lawyer, sawyer.

2. Denoting *state* or *being*.

- age, anchorage, bondage, homage, herbage.
- dom, kingdom, freedom, serfdom, earldom.
- hood, childhood, brotherhood, knighthood.
- ing, reading, writing, blessing.
- ness, darkness, whiteness, goodness.
- red, hatred, kindred.
- ric, dominion; bishopric.
- ry, finery, peasantry, Jewry.
- ship, friendship, hardship, lordship, fellowship.
- t, gift, cleft, draught.
- ter, laughter, slaughter.
- th, growth, health, length, truth.
- y, beggary, slavery.

3. Denoting *smallness* or *diminution*.

- el, satchel.
- en, chicken, kitten, maiden.
- et, floweret, lancet, violet, pocket.
- ie, doggie, lassie, laddie.
- kin, lambkin, manikin, napkin, piplín.
- let, booklet, leaflet, streamlet.
- ling, duckling, gosling, darling, foundling.
- ock, bullock, hillock.
- y, daddy, deary, baby, Johnny.

ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES.

-ed (added to nouns, like *ed* in the Past Participle of Verbs),
booted, gifted, feathered, scented, coloured, rooted.

-en, *made of*; earthen, golden, leaden, silken, wooden. Golden hair means only hair of the colour of gold. We say a *gold chain* for one made of gold.

-ern, *region, quarter*; eastern, northern, southern, &c.

-fold, *denoting multiplication*; twofold, manifold.

-ful, *full*: fruitful, hopeful, truthful, deceitful.

-ish, (1) added to Nouns, changes them into Adjectives; boyish, childish, foolish, slavish.

(2) added to Adjectives, weakens their force; blackish, whitish, sweetish.

(3) denoting nationality; British, English, Spanish, Turkish.

-less, *wanting*; heedless, houseless, lawless, senseless.

-ly, *like*; kingly, manly, heavenly, cleanly.

-some, *partaking of a certain quality*; troublesome, handsome, gladsome, wholesome, meddlesome.

-teen, *ten*; thirteen, fourteen.

-ty, *tens*; twenty, fifty, &c.

-ward, *direction*; homeward, landward, toward.

-y, *of the nature of*, when added to Nouns; hairy, rocky, healthy, wealthy.

VERB SUFFIXES.

-en, *to make*; darken, thicken, lengthen, strengthen.

-er, *frequentative*; chatter, patter (pat), batter (beat), flutter (flit), glimmer (gleam).

-le, *frequentative*¹; dabble, prattle, handle, sparkle.

After Adjectives **-er** is causative; linger (long), lower, hinder.

-k, *frequentative*; hark (hear), talk (tell).

-se, *to make*; cleanse, rinse.

-y, *to make*; sully, worry.

ADVERBIAL SUFFIXES.

-ere, *place where*; here, there, where.

-es, **-se**, **-ce**, **-s** (sign of the Possessive), unawares, sometimes, besides, else, hence, thence, needs, sideways, lengthways.

-ly, *like*; badly, goodly, purely, sweetly.

-ling, **-long**, *direction*; darkling, headlong, sidelong.

-om (Old English dative termination); seldom, whilom.

-ther, *direction towards*; hither, thither.

-ward, **-wards**, *direction*; homeward, downwards, inwards.

-wise, **-way**, **-ways**; anywise, otherwise, straightway, always.

EXERCISES.

What are the three principal classes of *Noun* suffixes? Give examples of each class. Name some of the *Adjective* suffixes.

¹ Denoting doing a thing often.

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a many men in her loose way. The other assistants she worked recalled that Mona had recently seen

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What are the three meanings of the suffix *-ish*? Name some of the *Verbal* suffixes. Name some of the *adverbial* suffixes.

Give the meanings of the Suffixes in the following words:—

Braggart, lambkin, bishopric, bullock, thirteen, fruitful, whole-some, floweret, hither, kingly, darkness, there, fifty, builder, drunkard, earthen, duckling, beggary, hatred, homeward, badly, lengthways, chicken, growth, auctioneer, lawyer, laughter, childhood, freedom, gift, headless.

Let the pupils question each other on the meanings of Suffixes to different parts of speech.

FORMATION OF DERIVATIVES.

NOUN DERIVATIVES.

1. Nouns are derived from other Nouns.

By means of Prefixes:—

After—aftercrop, afternoon, afterpiece.

By—bylaw, byroad, bystander.

Fore—foreman, forenoon, forerunner.

In—income, inroad, insight.

Mis—mistake, misdeed, mishap.

Out—outhouse, outlaw, outlook.

Up—upland, upshot, upstart.

Most words of this class come under the head of Compound Nouns. *See* page 228.

By means of Suffixes:—

(1.) Those denoting the *agent* or *doer*:

Beggar, drunkard, auctioneer, gardener, courtier, tailor, songster, lawyer.

(2.) Those denoting *state* or *being*:

Anchorage, childhood, reading, peasantry, friendship, beggary.

(3.) *Diminutives*:

Satchel, chicken, floweret, lambkin, booklet, duckling, hillock, lassie, doggie.

2. Nouns are derived from Adjectives.

By means of Suffixes:—

Youngster, drunkard, freedom, darkness, goodness, falsehood, fiery, truth, strength, warmth.

3. **Nouns** are derived from **Verbs**.By means of **Suffixes** :—

- (1.) Those denoting the
- agent*
- or
- doer*
- :

Beggar, speaker, braggart, sailor, spinster.

- (2.) Those denoting
- state*
- or
- being*
- :

Hatred, laughter, flight (fly), death (die), deed (do), health (heal).

ADJECTIVE DERIVATIVES.1. **Adjectives** are derived from **Nouns**.By means of **Suffixes** :—

Ragged, earthen, fruitful, foolish, childish, leathern, houseless, lawless, kingly, warlike, seaward, healthy, stormy.

2. **Adjectives** are derived from other **Adjectives**.

- (1.) By means of
- Prefixes**
- :—

Unclean, unkind, untrue.

- (2.) By means of
- Suffixes**
- :—

Greenish, weakly, gladsome, wearisome, tenfold, sixteen, sixty.

3. **Adjectives** are derived from **Verbs**.By means of **Suffixes** :—

Painted, married, trodden, stolen, roaring, blazing, shining.

EXERCISES.

From what parts of speech are *Nouns* derived? From what parts of speech are *Adjectives* derived?

Form Nouns from the following words :—

Look, road, speak, warm, brag, sail, law, child, flower, crop, sight, court, beg, friend, spin, laugh, heal.

Form Adjectives from the following words :—

War, glad, green, paint, leather, health, stone, king, sea, clean, weak, black, ten, six, roar, earth, rag.

VERB DERIVATIVES.1. **Verbs** are derived from **Nouns**.

- (1.) By means of
- Prefixes**
- :—

Bedew, befriend, encircle, encompass, empower, unheard, unroof.

- (2.) By means of
- Suffixes**
- :—

Sparkle, lengthen, strengthen.

... and Mona Spurling was not a ...
many men in her loose way. The other assistants in ...
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2. Verbs are derived from Adjectives.

(1.) By means of Prefixes :—

Bedim, embitter.

(2.) By means of Suffixes :—

Shorten, sweeten, soften, lower, cleanse.

3. Verbs are formed from other Verbs.

By means of Prefixes :—

Await, besmear, forbid, forget, mislead, foretell, enfold, outlive, uphold, withhold.

ADVERB DERIVATIVES.

Adverbs can be formed from many Adjectives by adding *ly*; as, free, *freely*; bold, *boldly*; bitter, *bitterly*; first, *firstly*; merry, *merrily*; pretty, *prettily*.

Some Adverbs are formed from Nouns; as, afoot, ashore, aside.

Adverbs are formed from Participles by adding *ly*; as, *knowingly*, *willingly*.

Some are derived from Prepositions; as, upward, downwards, within.

COMBINATION OF METHODS.

Many words owe their origin to a combination of *two or more* of the above methods of forming Nouns, Adjectives, &c.; as, *untruthfulness*, *unenlightened*.

INFLUENCE OF ACCENT.

Sometimes a difference in the Accent makes the difference between a Noun and a Verb :

NOUN.	VERB.
Ab'sent	absent'
Ac'cent	accent'
Con'duct	conduct'
In'cense	incense'
Pre'fix	prefix'
Tor'ment	torment'

Many words may be used as Nouns or as Verbs according to the meaning; a heavy *blow*; *blow*, ye winds.

EXERCISES.

From what parts of Speech are *Verbs* derived? From what parts of Speech are *Adverbs* derived?

Form Verbs from the following words :—

Length, friend, hand, dim, get, hold, short, bitter, circle, power, sweet, clean, low.

Form Adverbs from the following words :—

Kind, warm, up, shore, true, false, hour, late, scarce, whole, some, after, on, second.

What Combination of Methods is sometimes employed? What effect has accent sometimes? Give examples. How may many words be used?

LATIN AND FRENCH PREFIXES.

Numerous Latin Prefixes are employed in word-building. Some, which come through the French, are slightly altered; as, *contra*, against, becomes *counter*.

Prefixes take different forms, in some cases, for the sake of euphony, as in Sanskrit according to *Sandhi*. Thus *ad* takes the forms mentioned below.

A-, ab-, abs-, signifying *from, away*; as, *a-vert*, *ab-solve*, *abs-tract*. Sanskrit, *apa-*.

Ad- (sometimes becoming *a-, ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-*), *to*; as, *ad-ore*, *as-cend*, *ac-cept*, *af-fix*, *ag-gravate*, *al-lure*, *an-nex*, *ap-peal*, *ar-range*, *as-sist*, *at-tract*.

Ambi-, amb-, am-, *around, about, on both sides*; as *ambi-guous*, *amb-ition*, *am-putate*.

Ante-, anti- (French *an-*), *before*: as, *ante-diluvian*, *anti-cipate*, *an-cestor*.

Bene-, *well*; as, *bene-fit*, *bene-volence*.

Bi-, two, bis-, bin-, twice; as, *bi-ped*, *bis-cuit*, *bin-ocular*.

Circum- (*circu-*), *around*; as, *circum-navigate*, *cir-cuit*.

Cis-, on this side: as, *Cis-alpine*.

Con- (*co-, cog-, col-, com-, cor-*, French *coun-*), *with, together*; as, *con-tract*, *co-here*, *cog-nate*, *col-lect*, *com-mit*, *cor-rection*, *coun-cil*. Sanskrit, *sam-*.

Contra-, contro- (*counter-*), *against*; as, *contra-dict*, *contro-vert*, *counter-act*.

De-, down, from; as, *d.-pose*, *de-throne*.

Demi-, half; as, *demi-god*.

Dis-, di-, dif-, *apart, reversal*; *dis-pel*, *di-late*, *dif-fusion*. French *des-, de-, des-cent, de-feat*.

E-, Ex-, (*ec-, ef-*), *out of*: as, *e-duce*, *ex-tract*, *ec-centric*, *ex-face*. French forms, *es-, is-, s-*; as, *es-cape*, *is-sue*, *s-ample*.

Extra-, beyond; as, *extra-ordinary*. French *is-, s-*; as, *es-trange*, *s-tranger*.

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many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop whe
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In-, il-, im-, ir-, *in, into, on, against*; as, *in-vert, il-lustrate, im-pute, ir-ruption*. French forms, *en-, em-*; as, *en-act, em-ploy*.

In many words the Prefix can be spelt either as the Latin *in*, or as the French *en*; as, *in-quire* or *en-quire*.

En-, or em-, before Nouns and Adjectives changes them into Facitive Verbs; as, *en-dear, em-bitter*.

In-, ig-, il-, im-, ir-, *not*; as, *in-firm, ig-noble, il-legal, im-portant, in-regular*. Sanskrit, *a-, an-*.

Inter-, *between*; as, *inter-vene*.

Intro-, *to, within*; as, *intro-duce*. French *enter*; *enter-tain*. Sanskrit, *antar*.

Juxta-, *near to*; as, *juxta-position*.

Male-, *mal-, badly*; as, *male-volent, mal-treat*.

Mis-, French from the Latin *minus*, *less, badly*; as, *mis-fortune*.

Non-, *ne-, neg-, not*; as, *non-sense, ne-farious, neg-lect*.

Non only implies the absence of a quality; *in* or *un* often means something opposed to the quality. *Non-Christian* means not Christian; *un-Christian*, something opposed to Christianity.

Ob-, *oc-, of-, op-, os-, against, in front of*; as, *ob-ject, oc-cur, of-fend, op-pose, os-tentation*.

Pene-, *almost*; as, *pen-insula*.

Per-, *pel-, through*; as, *per-fect, pel-lucid*. French *par-, par-don*. Sanskrit, *pari-*.

Post-, *after*; as, *post-script*.

Pre-, *before*; as, *pre-fix*.

Preter-, *past, beyond*; as, *preter-natural*.

Pro-, *por-, pol-, foi, fore, forth*; as, *pro-noun, por-trait, pol-lute*. French *pur-, pur-pose*. Sanskrit, *pra-*.

Re-, *red-, back again*; as, *re-form, red-emption*. The presence or absence of a hyphen after *re* in Verbs affects the meaning. To *recover* an umbiella means to get it back; to *re-cover* it means to put a new cover on it.

Retro-, *backward*; as, *retro-grade*. French, *rear-*; as, *rear-rank*.

Se-, *aside, apart*; as, *se-duce, se-cede*.

Semi-, *half*; as, *semi-circle*.

Sine-, *sim-, sin-, without*; as, *sine-cure, sim-ple, sin-cere*.

Sub-, *suc-, suf-, sug-, sum-, sup-, sus-, under, after, up*; as, *sub-treasurer, sub-scribe, sur-ceed, suf-fer, sug-gest, sum-mon, sup-port, sus-pend*. Sanskrit, *upa-*.

Subter-, *under, beneath*; as, *subter-fuge*.

Super-, *beyond*; as, *super-natural*. French, *sur-, sur-vey*. Sanskrit, *upari-*.

Trans- (*tra-*), *beyond*; as, *trans-gress, tra-dition*. French, *tres-, tres-pass*.

Tres-, *tri-, three*; as, *tri-angle, tri-une*.

Ultra-, beyond; as, *ultra-liberal*, *out-rage*.
Unus- (*un-*, *uni-*), one; as, *un-anonymous*, *uni-form*.
Vice- (*vis-*), instead of; as, *vice-roy*, *vis-count*.

LATIN AND FRENCH SUFFIXES.

These are very numerous, and some of them have different meanings. The principal are given below:—

Noun Suffixes.

1. Denoting chiefly the agent or doer of a thing.

-an, -ain, -en, *artisan*, *Roman*, *captain*, *warden*, *citizen*.
 -ant, -ent, *merchant*, *servant*, *vagrant*, *student*, *regent*.
 -ary, -ar, -aire, *missionary*, *notary*, *scholar*, *millionaire*.
 -ate, -ite, -it, *candidate*, *advocate*, *favourite*, *Israelite*, *hermit*.
 -eer, -ier, -er, *volunteer*, *engineer*, *soldier*, *messenger*, *prisoner*.
 -ess, -triz, signs of feminine, from *ix*, and later Latin, -issa, *lioness*, *testatrix*.
 -iff, -ive, *plaintiff*, *bailiff*, *relative*, *native*, *captive*.
 -or, -our, -eur, *ancestor*, *doctor*, *emperor*, *saviour*, *amateur*.

2. Denoting one who.

The sense is generally Passive.

-ee, -ey, -y, *grantee*, *payee*, *examinee*, *attorney*, *jury*, *levy*.

3. Denoting action, being, or state of being.

-acy, -cy, *accuracy*, *delicacy*, *supremacy*, *secrecy*.
 -age, *bondage*, *marriage*, *postage*, *message*, *damage*.
 -al, *arrival*, *dismissal*, *refusal*, *trial*, *nuptials*.
 -ance, -ancy, *abundance*, *assistance*, *brilliance*, *hesitancy*.
 -ence, -ency, *diligence*, *excellence*, *patience*, *decency*, *urgency*.
 -ery, -ry, *cookery*, *slavery*, *bravery*, *bribery*, *musketry*.
 -ice, -ise, -ess, *avarice*, *justice*, *exercise*, *merchandise*, *providence*.
 -ion, -on, -om, *action*, *admission*, *opinion*, *lesson*, *ransom*.
 -ity, -ty, *scarcity*, *captivity*, *equality*, *certainly*, *poverty*.
 -ment, *agreement*, *complement*, *employment*, *payment*, *punishment*.

-mony, *ceremony*, *patrimony*, *matrimony*, *parsimony*.
 -or, -our, -eur, *error*, *liquor*, *colour*, *labour*, *honour*, *grandeur*.
 -tude, *gratitude*, *latitude*, *longitude*, *magnitude*, *solitude*.
 -ure, *agriculture*, *capture*, *departure*, *pleasure*, *torture*.
 -y, *beggary*, *envy*, *industry*, *memory*, *misery*, *victory*.

4. Denoting Diminutives.

-el, -le, *parcel*, *morsel*, *damsel*, *angle*, *buckle*, *circle*.
 -cule, -icle, -cile, -icil, *animalcule*, *article*, *domicile*, *codicil*.

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-et, -ot, *bullet*, *pocket*, *owllet*, *floweret*, *chariot*, *parrot*.¹
 -ette, *cigarette*, *novelette*, *statuette*, *waggonette*.
 -let, *bracelet*, *booklet*, *rootlet*, *leaflet*, *streamlet*.
 -ule, *globule*, *capsule*, *pilule*, *nodule*.

This is also used in a general sense; as, *ridicule*. So with -le; as, *fable*, *miracle*, *people*.

Adjective Suffixes.

1. Denoting of or belonging to.

-al, *animal*, *mortal*, *fatal*, *national*, *regal*, *plural*.
 -an, -ane, -ain, *pagan*, *human*, *humane*, *mundane*, *certain*.
 -ant, *abundant*, *ignorant*, *constant*, *vacant*, *brilliant*.
 -ar, *singular*, *solar*, *lunar*, *familiar*, *popular*, *vulgar*.
 -ary, *customary*, *contrary*, *ordinary*, *necessary*, *secondary*.
 -ic, -ique, *aquatic*, *domestic*, *public*, *oblique*, *unique*.
 -il, -ile, -le, -el, *civil*, *fragile*, *frail*, *infantile*, *cruel*, *gentle*.
 -ine, *canine*, *asinine*, *elephantine*, *masculine*, *feminine*.
 -ory, *prefatory*, *laudatory*, *compulsory*, *promissory*.

2. Denoting full of, consisting of, given to.

-ate, *accurate*, *fortunate*, *estimate*, *obstinate*.
 -lent, *opulent*, *fraudulent*, *violent*, *corpulent*.
 -ose, -ous, *verbose*, *bellicose*, *glorious*, *dangerous*, *furious*.

3. Various meanings.

-id, *quality*; *rapid*, *timid*, *acid*, *stupid*, *liquid*, *solid*.
 -ible, *power in a passive sense*; *curable*, *portable*, *incredible*.
 -ive, *power actively*; *active*, *transitive*, *legislative*, *imitative*.
 -escent, *growing*, *becoming*; *putrescent*, *effervescent*, *quiescent*.

Verb Suffixes.

The following suffixes denote to make or cause to be, in Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives :—

-ate, *agitate*, *cultivate*, *facilitate*, *nominate*, *separate*.
 -fy, *beautify*, *glorify*, *magnify*, *purify*, *stupefy*, *simplify*.
 -ish, *banish*, *famish*, *diminish*, *publish*, *replenish*, *polish*.

The suffix -esce means a state of growing or becoming; as, *effervesce*, *coalesce*.

GREEK PREFIXES.

A-, an-, *without*, *not*; as, *a-tom*, *an-archy*. Sanskrit, a-, an.
 Amphi-, both, two; as, *amphi-theatre*, *amphi-bious*. Sanskrit, abhi-.

¹ Parrot in French means Little Peter.

- Ana-**, *up, through, again*; as, *ana-tomy*.
Anti-, *ant-, against*; as, *anti-pathy, ant-agonist*.
Apo-, *ap-, aph, from, away from*; as, *apo-state, ap-ologue, aph-orism*. Sanskrit, *apa-*.
Arch-, *archi-, chief, head*; as, *arch-bishop, archi-tect*.
Auto-, *self*; as, *auto-graph*.
Cata-, *cath-, down*; as, *cata-strophe, cath-olic*.
Dis-, *di-, twice*; as, *di-phthong, dis-syllable*.
Dia-, *through*; as, *dia-meter, dia-logue*.
Dys-, *ill, amiss*; as, *dys-entery, dys-pepsia*.
Ec-, ex-, *out, from*; as, *ex-odus, ex-centric*.
En-, em-, *in, on*; as, *en-demic, em-phasis*.
Endo-, *within*; *endo-genous*.
Epi-, *upon, to*; as, *epi-taph, epi-stle*. Sanskrit, *api-*.
Eu-, ev-, *well, good*; as, *eu-logy, ev-angel, ev-angelist*. Sanskrit, *su-*.
Ex-, ec-, *out, out of*; as, *ex-odus, ex-stasy*.
Exo-, *without*; as, *ex-ogenous, ex-otic*.
Hemi-, *half*; as, *hemi-sphere*.
Hyper-, *over*; as, *hyper-critical*. Sanskrit, *upari-*.
Hypo-, *under*; as, *hypo-thesis*. Sanskrit, *upa-*.
Meta-, meth-, *after, across, beyond*; as, *meta-phor, meta-physics, meth-od*.
Para-, par-, signifying *besides* (as if for comparison, and hence it sometimes denotes *similarity* and sometimes *contrariety*); as, *para-llel, par-ody, para-dox, para-ble, para-graph*. Sanskrit, *para-*.
Peri-, *round about*; as, *peri-phery, peri-patetic*. Sanskrit, *pari-*.
Pro-, *before*; as, *pro-logue*.
Syn-, sy-, syl-, sym-, *together, with*; as, *syn-tax, sy-stem, syl-lable, sym-pathy*. Sanskrit, *sam-*.

GREEK SUFFIXES.

Noun Suffixes.

- ic, -ics**, denoting *abstract nouns*; as, *music, logic, optics*.
-isk, a diminutive; as, *asterisk, obelisk*.
-ism, -asm, *state of being*; as, *sophism, schism, chasm*.
-sis, -sy, -se, *action*; *crisis, analysis, dropsy, eclipse*.
-st, -te, -t, *agent*; *botanist, apostate, poet*.
-ter, -tre, *instrument or place*; *metre, centre, theatre*.
-y, *quality or state of being*; *philosophy, monarchy, melancholy*.

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The Suffixes -ism and -ist are largely used for English and Latin roots, as well as for Greek.

Adjective Suffix.

-ic, -ical. Ic is a Greek suffix; ical has the Latin *al* added to the Greek. Comic, comical; magic, magical; politic, political.

Verb Suffix.

-ize, -ise, to make; civilize or civilise baptize, criticise. It is used like -ism and -ist.

LATIN ROOTS AND DERIVATIVES.

These are very numerous. Some of the most important are given, with corresponding Sanskrit roots¹ where the connection is clear.

- Acer, acris, *sharp*: acrid, acerbity, acrimony. Sanskrit, asra.
 Æquus, equal: equity, equator, equinox, iniquity.
 Æstimo, to value: estimate, esteem, inestimable.
 Ævum, an age. coeval, medieval, primeval. Sansk., áyus.
 Ager, a field. agriculture, agrarian. Sanskrit, ajra.
 Ago, actum, to do: agent, actor, react. Sansk., aj.
 Alter, the other of two: alternate, altercation, adulterate.
 Amo, amatum, to love: amity, amorous, amicable, enemy.
 Angulus, a corner: angular, rectangle, triangle, quadrangle.
 Annus, a year: annual, annals, annuity, perennial.
 Aperio, apertum, to open: April, aperient, aperture.
 Aptus, fit: apt, adapt, aptitude, inept. Sansk., ápta.
 Aqua, water: aquatic, aqueduct, aqueous. Sansk., ap.
 Audio, auditum, to hear: audible, audience, inaudible, obey.
 Augeo, auctum, to increase: augment, auction, author.
 Avis, a bird: aviary, auspicious. Sansk., vi.
 Cado, casum, to fall: case, casual, accident, coincide.
 Cædo, cæsum, to cut, kill: incision, concise, suicide. Sansk. chhid.
 Candeo, to shine: candid, candle, incendiary, candidate.
 Cano, cantum, to sing: cant, chant, enchant, recant. Sansk., gāna.
 Capio, captum, to take: captive, capture, accept, intercept.
 Caput, capitis, the head: cap, capital, decapitate, chapter.
 Caro, carnis, flesh: carnal, carnivorous, incarnate, carnage.
 Cavus, hollow: cave, cavity, cavern, excavate.

¹ As given in Benfey's *Sanskrit-English Dictionary*,

- Cedo**, cessum, *to go, yield*: antecedent, exceed, accede, recede, intercede, concede.
- Centum**, *a hundred*: cent, century, centipede. Sansk., satam.
- Cerno**, cernum, *to distinguish*: discern, discreet, discretion, secrete, secretary, decree, concern.
- Certus**, sure: certain, ascertain, certify, certificate.
- Cingo**, cinctum, *to bind, to gird*: cincture, precinct, succinct.
- Circus**, a ring: circus, circuit, circulate.
- Clamo**, *to shout*: clamour, exclamation, proclaim, disclaim.
- Claudo**, clausum, *to shut*: clause, conclude, exclude, include.
- Colo**, cultum, *to cultivate*: culture, agriculture, colony.
- Cor**, cordis, *the heart*: core, concord, cordial, courage, discord.
- Corpus**, corporis, *the body*: corps, corpse, corpulent, corporeal, corporation, corpuscle, incorporate.
- Credo**, creditum, *to believe*: creed, credible, credulous, incredible.
- Creo**, creatum, *to make*: create, creature, recreation. Sansk., kri.
- Cresco**, cernum, *to grow*: crescent, decrease, increment.
- Cura**, care: cure, accurate, sinecure, secure, careful.
- Curro**, cursum, *to run*: current, course, incur, occur, excursion.
- Decem**, ten: decimal, December, decimate. Sansk., dasan.
- Dens**, dentis, *a tooth*: dental, dentist, indent, trident. Sansk., dant.
- Deus**, God: deity, deify, divine, divination. Sansk., deva.
- Dico**, dictum, *to say*: diction, dictionary, contradict, predict.
- Dies**, a day; diurnus, daily: diary, diurnal, meridian. Sansk., div.
- Do**, datum, *to give*: date, dative, add, addition, edit. Sansk., dâ.
- Docceo**, doctum, *to teach*: docile, doctor, doctrine.
- Dono**, *to give*; donum, a gift: donation, condone. Sansk., dâna.
- Dormeo**, *to sleep*: dormant, dormitory, dormouse. Sansk., drâ.
- Duco**, ductum, *to lead*: duke, duct, ductile, introduce, reduce.
- Duo**, two: dual, duet, duel, duplicate, duplicity. Sansk., dwi.
- Emo**, emptum, *to buy*: exempt, redeem, prompt, peremptory.
- Ens**, esse, *to be*; est, it is: absent, entity, essence. Sansk., asti.
- Eo**, itum, *to go*; iens, going: exit, transit, ambition. Sansk., i.
- Erro**, *to wander*: err, error, erroneous, aberration.
- Facio**, factum, *to make*: fact, factor, perfect, defect, affect, infect, benefit, reft, benefactor, magnify.
- Fallo**, falsum, *to deceive*: false, fallible, infallible, fail.
- Fendo**, fensum, *to keep off*: fend, fence, defend, offend, offence.
- Fero**, latum, *to carry, bear*: fertile, prefer, refer, confer, differ, relate, translate, superlative.
- Fido**, *to trust*; fides, faith: confide, infidel, perfidy, faith.
- Fixo**, fixum, *to fix*: fix, fixture, affix, prefix, suffix.
- Fingo**, fictum, *to pretend*: fiction, fictitious, figment, feign.

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- Finis, *an end*: final, finish, finite, infinite, infinitive.
 Flecto, flexum, *to bend*: reflect, reflection, flexible, inflexible.
 Flos, floris, *a flower*: floral, florid, flourish. Sansk., phal.
 Fluo, fluxum, *to flow*: fluid, fluent, affluent, flour. Sansk., plu.
 Fortis, *strong*: fortify, fortitude, fortress, effort, force.
 Frango, fractum, *to break*: fragment, fraction, fracture, infringe.
 Fruor, *to enjoy*: fructus, *fruit*: frugal, fruition, fructify.
 Fugio, fugitum, *to flee*: fugitive, refuge, centrifugal.
 Fumus, *smoke*: fume, perfume, fumigate. Sansk., dhāma.
 Fundo, fustum, *to pour*: confound, refund, fusible, diffuse, refuse.
 Gens, gentis, *people*: genus, *kind*: gender, general, genial, gentle, generation, indigenous, regenerate. Sansk., jāti.
 Gero, gestum, *to carry*: gesture, suggest, belligerent, vicegerent.
 Gradior, gressus, *to go, walk*: gradual, retrograde, progress, transgress.
 Gravis, *heavy*: grave, gravity, grievance, aggravate, aggregate.
 Grex, gregis, *a flock*: gregarious, congregation, aggregate.
 Habeo, habitum, *to have*: habito, *to dwell in*: habit, prohibit, exhibit, inhibit, habitation, habitable.
 Hæreo, hæsum, *to stick*: adhere, cohere, adhesive, hesitate.
 Homo, hominis, *a man*: human, humane, homicide, homage.
 Hospes, hospitis, *a guest*: hospital, hospitable, hostel, hotel.
 Humus, *the ground*: exhume, humble, humility, posthumous.
 Ignis, *fire*: ignite, igneous. Sansk., agni.
 Impero, *to command*: imperative, imperial, emperor.
 Insula, *an island*: insular, peninsula, isolate.
 Jaceo, *to lie down*: adjacent, circumjacent.
 Jacio, jactum, *to throw*: ejaculate, abject, adjective, eject, object, project, reject, conjecture.
 Jugum, *a yoke*: conjugate, conjugal, subjugate. Sansk., yuga.
 Jungo, junctum, *to join*: junction, adjunct, subjunctive, join, adjoin, conjoin, disjoin. Sansk., yuj.
 Juro, *to swear*: jury, aljure, conjure, perjure.
 Jus, juris, *law, right*: jurisdiction, injure. Sansk., yu.
 Juvenis, *young*: juvenile, junior. Sansk., yuvan.
 Latus, lateris, *a side*: lateral, equilateral, collateral.
 Lego, lectum, *to choose, read*: legible, legend, elect, lecture, collection, recollect, select.
 Lego, legatum, *to send*: legate, delegate, legacy.
 Levis, *light*: levity, alleviate, levy, relief, relieve. Sansk., laghu.
 Lex, legis, *a law*: legal, illegal, legislate, legitimate.
 Ligo, ligatum, *to bind*: ligament, oblige, obligation, religion.
 Locus, *a place*: local, locomotive, collocate, dislocate.
 Loquor, locutus, *to speak*: loquacity, elocution, colloquy. Sansk., lap.

- Ludo, lusum, *to play*: ludicrous, elude, delude, collusion.
 Luo, lutum, *to wash*: ablution, dilute, pollute, alluvial.
 Magister, *a master*: magistrate, magistracy, master, mastery.
 Magnus, *great*: magnitude, magnify, major, mayor. Sansk., mah, formerly magh.
 Maneo, mansum, *to stay*: mansion, permanent, remnant.
 Manus, *the hand*: manual, manuscript, manage, emancipate.
 Medius, *the middle*: medium, meditate, Mediterranean. Sansk., madhya.
 Mens, mentis, *the mind*: mental, demented. Sansk., man.
 Mergo, mersum, *to dip*: emerge, submerge, immense, emergency.
 Merx, mercis, *goods for sale*: merchant, commerce, market.
 Metior, mensus, *to measure*: measure, immense, mensuration.
 Minor, *smaller*; minuo, *to lessen*: minor, minute, minimum.
 Misceo, mixtum, *to mix*: mixture, promiscuous. Sansk., misra.
 Mitto, missum, *to send*: admit, emit, mission, committee.
 Modus, *a measure*: mood, modify, moderate, modest, model.
 Moneo, monitum, *to advise*: monitor, admonish, monument. Sansk., man.
 Mordeo, morsum, *to bite*: morsel, remorse. Sansk., mrid.
 Mors, mortis, *death*: mortal, mortify, immortal. Sansk., marta, mri.
 Moveo, motum, *to move*: motion, moment, mobile, commotion.
 Multus, *many*: multitude, multiply, multiple.
 Munus, muneris, *a gift*: munificent, remunerate, municipal.
 Muto, *to change*: mutable, mutual, transmute, commute.
 Nascor, natus, *to be born*: natal, native, innate, cognate.
 Navis, *a ship*: naval, navy, navigate, nave. Sansk., naus.
 Noceo, *to hurt*: innocent, noxious, nuisance.
 Nomen, *a name*: noun, pronoun, nominate. Sansk., nâman.
 Noseo, notum, *to know*: note, notice, notify, noble, recognize. Sansk., jnâ.
 Nullus, *none*: null, annul, nullify, nullity.
 Nutrio, nutritum, *to nourish*: nourish, nutriment, nurse.
 Officium, *duty*: office, official, officiate, officious.
 Oleo, *to smell*: olfactory, redolent.
 Olesco, oletum, ultum, *to grow*: redolent, obsolete, adult.
 Omnis, *all*: omnipotent, omnipresent, omniscient.
 Opto, *to work*: option, optative.
 Opus, operis, *work*: operative, co-operate. Sansk., apas.
 Orior, ortus, *to arise*: orient, origin, abortive.
 Oro, oratum, *to speak, pray*: adore, orator, oration.
 Os, oris, *the mouth*: oral, orifice. Sansk., âsya.
 Ovum, *an egg*: oval, oviparous.
 Pando, pansum, passum, *to spread*: expand, expansion, trespass, force.

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- Par, equal*: compare, disparity, peer, pair, unpie.
Pareo, to appear: apparent, transparent, apparition.
Pario, partum, to bring forth: parent, viviparous, viper.
Paro, paratum, to get ready: parade, prepare.
Pars, partis, part or share: particle, participle, impartial, parse.
Pater, patris, a father: paternal, patron, parricide. Sansk.,
 pitri.
Patiior, passus, to suffer: patient, passive, compassion.
Pax, pacis, peace: peace, appease, pacify, pacific.
Pello, pulsum, to drive: expel, repel, impulse, compulsory.
Pendeo, pensum, to hang: pendent, expend, suspense.
Pendo, pensum, to weigh, pay: pensive, expensive, recompense.
Pes, pedis, the foot: biped, quadruped, impede. Sansk., pad.
Peto, petitum, to seek: petition, compete, impetuous.
Placeo, placitum, to please: placid, complacent, please.
Plecto, plexum, to twist: complex, perplex.
Pleo, pletum, to fill: plenus, full: complete, replete, plenary,
 complement, replenish. Sansk.. plu.
Plico, plicatum, to fold: implicate, complicate, simple, multiply,
 implicit, explicit.
Pœna, punishment: penal, penalty, repent, penitent.
Pono, positum, to place: opponent, postpone, oppose, expose.
Populus, people: populace, population, popular, people.
Possum, to be able; potens, able: possible, potential, omnipo-
 tent.
Prehendo, prehensum, to take, grasp: prehensile, comprehend,
 comprise, surprise, prison.
Pretium, price: precious, depreciate, prize, price.
Probo, probatum, to try, prove: probable, approve, proof, prove.
Pungo, punctum, to prick: pungent, expunge, punctual, point.
Puto, putatum, to cut, think: amputate, compute, dispute.
Quæro, quæsitum, to ask: query, acquire, question.
Quatuor, four: quadra, a square: quart, quadruped, quarter,
 squadron. Sansk., chatur.
Quies, quietis, rest: quiet, acquiesce, quiescent.
Radius, a beam, ray: ray, radiant, radiate.
Rado, rasum, to scrape: erase, razor. Sansk., rad.
Rapio, raptum, to seize: rapt, rapid, ravenous.
Rego, rectum, to rule: regal, royal, regular, correct. Sansk., ráj.
Rogo, rogatum, to ask: interrogative, derogatory, arrogate.
Rota, a wheel: rotation, rotund, round.
Rumpo, ruptum, to break: rupture, bankrupt, eruption.
Salio, saltum, to leap: salient, sally, assault, insult, exult.
Sanctus, holy: sanctify, sanctuary, sanctimonious, saint.
Sapio, to taste, to be wise: insipid, savour, sapient.
Satis, enough: satisfy, satiate, satisfactory.

- Scando**, *scansum*, to climb: ascend, descend, transcend.
Scio, *scitum*, to know: science, conscience, omniscient.
Scribo, *scriptum*, to write: scribe, scripture, describe, inscribe.
Seco, *sectum*, to cut: section, bisect, dissect, intersect.
Sedeo, *sessum*, to sit: session, reside, consider, seat. Sansk., sad.
Sentio, *sensum*, to think: sentient, sensual, sense, resent.
Sequor, *secutus*, to follow: sequence, persecute, obsequious, sue.
Sero, *sertum*, to put in a row: series, insert, sermon.
Servio, *servitum*, to be a slave: serve, service, deserve, serf.
Servo, *servatum*, to keep: preserve, reserve, observe.
Signum, a mark: sign, signal, assign, consign, design.
Sisto, to stop: assist, desist, persist, resist.
Solvo, *solutum*, to loosen: solve, solution, dissolve, absolve.
Spargo, *sparsum*, to scatter: sparse, disperse, aspersion.
Specio, *spectrum*, to see: spy, spectator, aspect, respect, despise.
Spiro, *spiratum*, to breathe: spirit, inspire, expire, conspire.
Spondeo, *sponsum*, to promise: respond, despond, sponsor, spouse.
Sterno, *stratum*, to lay flat: prostrate, stratify, street, strew.
Sto, *statum*, to stand: stable, station, state, distant. Sansk., sthâ.
Stringo, *strictum*, to find: stringent, restrict, distinct, strain.
Struo, *structum*, to build: structure, instruct, destroy. Sansk., stri.
Sumo, *sumptum*, to take: assume, consume, presume, resume.
Surgo, *surrectum*, to rise: surge, insurgent, insurrection, source.
Taceo, *tacitum*, to be silent: tacit, taciturn, reticence. Sansk., tush.
Tango, *tactum*, to touch: tangible, tangent, contact, tact.
Tego, *tectum*, to cover: integument, protect, detect.
Tempus, *temporis*, time: temporal, contemporary, tense.
Tendo, *tensum*, to stretch: extend, tension, attention, tend.
Teneo, *tentum*, to hold: tenant, retain, detain. Sansk., taz.
Tero, *tritum*, to rub: trite, contrite, triturate, detriment.
Terra, the earth: terrestrial, subterranean, Mediterranean.
Testis, a witness: testify, attest, protest, testimonial.
Texo, *textum*, to weave: texture, textile, context, pretext.
Torqueo, *tortum*, to twist: torture, distort, extort, retort.
Traho, *tractum*, to draw: tract, abstract, contract, trait, treat.
Tueor, *tuitus*, to see to: tutor, tuition, tutelage.
Tumeo, to swell: tumour, tumult, tomb. Sansk., tumula.
Ultra, beyond: ultimatum, penultimate.
Unguo, *unctum*, to anoint: ointment, anoint, unguent. Sansk., anj.
Unus, one: unit, unify, unanimous, universe.
Vagor, to wander: vagrant, vague, extravagant, vagabond.

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- Valeo, *to be strong* : valid, invalid, prevail, value.
 Veho, vectum, *to carry* : vehicle, invective. Sansk., vah.
 Venio, ventum, *to come* : prevent, avenue, intervene, advent.
 Verito, versum, *to turn* : convert, reverse, divorce. Sansk., vrit.
 Via, *a road* : viaduct, obviate, deviate, previous. Sansk., vaha.
 Video, visum, *to see* : evident, visible, survey. Sansk., vid.
 Vinco, victum, *to conquer* : invincible, victory, convict.
 Vir, *a man* : virile, virtue, triumvirate. Sansk., vira.
 Vivo, victum, *to live* : revive, vivid, viands, victuals. Sansk., jiv.
 Voco, *I call*; Vox, vocis, *the voice* : vocal, vowel, invoke. Sansk., vach.
 Volo, *to wish, to be willing* : voluntary, volition, benevolent.
 Volvo, volutum, *to roll* : volume, revolve, voluble.
 Voro, *to eat up* : voracious, carnivorous, devour.
 Voveo, votum, *to vow* : vote, devote, votary, vow.

GREEK ROOTS—DERIVATIVES.

- Agôn, *a contest* : agony, antagonist.
 Angelos, *a messenger* : angel, archangel, evangelist.
 Anthrôpos, *a man* : misanthrope, philanthropist, anthropology.
 Archê, *rule* : monarch, anarchy, patriarch.
 Arithmos, *number* : arithmetic, arithmetical.
 Astron, *a star* : astronomy, astrology, asterisk, disaster.
 Autos, *self, same* : autocrat, autograph.
 Ballo, *to throw* : parable, symbol, hyperbole, problem.
 Basis, *support* : basis, base, basement.
 Bios, *life* : biography, biology, amphibious.
 Chronos, *time* : chronic, chronicle, chronology, chronometer.
 Crisis, *judgment*; critês, *a judge* : crisis, critic, hypocrite.
 Dêmos, *the people* : demagogue, democracy, epidemic.
 Dis, *twice* : diphthong, dilemma.
 Doxa, dogma, *an opinion* : orthodox heterodox, dogma, dogmatic.
 Draô, *to do* : drama, drastic.
 Dynamis, *power* : dynamite, dynamics, dynasty.
 Epos, *a word* : epic, orthoepy.
 Ergon, *a work* : energy, liturgy, surgeon, surgeon.
 Eu, *well* : eulogy, euphony, evangelist.
 Gamos, *marriage* : polygamy, bigamy.
 Gê, *the earth* : geography, geometry, geology, apogee.
 Gonia, *a corner* : diagonal, polygon, trigonometry.
 Graphô, *to write*; gramma, *a letter* : graphic, telegraph, telegram, grammar, epigram.
 Hêmi, *half* : hemisphere.

- Hodos**, *a way*: method, exodus, period, episode.
Holos, *the whole*: catholic, holocaust.
Hōra, *hour*: microscope.
Hydōr, *water*: hydrogen, hydraulics, hyalophobia, dropsy.
Idios, *peculiar*: idiom, idiosyncrasy, idiot.
Isos, *equal*: isosceles, isothermal.
Kosmos, *order, the world*: cosmic, cosmogony, cosmopolite.
Kratos, *power*: democrat, democracy, aristocracy.
Kryptō, *to hide*: crypt, apocrypha, cryptogamous.
Kyklos, *a circle*: cyclone, bicycle, encyclopædia.
Lēgo, *to say*; **lexis**, *speech*; **logos**, *a word*: dialogue, dialect, logic, eulogy, geology, anthology, lexicon, lexicographer.
Leiptō, *to leave*: eclipse, ellipse, elliptical.
Lithos, *a stone*: aerolite, lithography, chrysolite.
Lysis, *a loosening*: analysis, paralysis, palsy.
Mēchanē, *contrivance*: mechanic, machine, machinery.
Mētēr, *mother*: metropolis. Sansk. *mātri*.
Metron, *a measure*: meter, barometer, thermometer. Sansk. *mā*.
Mikros, *little*: microscope, microcosm.
Monos, *alone*: monarch, monosyllable, monotony.
Neos, *new*: neophyte, neology, Naples.
Nēsos, *an island*: Polynesia.
Nomos, *a law*: astronomy, economy, Deuteronomy.
Odē, *a song*: prosody, melody, comedy, parody.
Oikos, *a house*: economy, diocese.
Onoma, *a name*: synonym, anonymous. Sansk. *nāman*.
Opsis, *sight*; **optomai**, *to see*: synopsis, optics, optical.
Organon, *an instrument*: organ, organise, organic.
Pais, **paidos**, *a child*; **pedagogue**, **paideutics**.
Pathos, *feeling*: pathetic, apathy, antipathy, sympathy.
Phainō, *to show*: phenomenon, phantom, fancy, phase.
Phēmi, *to speak*: blaspheme, euphemism, prophet, prophesy.
Philos, *friend*: philosopher, philanthropy, Russophile.
Phonē, *the voice*: phonetic, euphony, telephone, symphony.
Phōs, *photos*, *light*: photography, phosphorus.
Phrasis, *mode of speaking*: phrase, paraphrase, phraseology.
Physis, *nature*: physis, physics, metaphysics, neophyte.
Poieō, *to make*: poet, poem, onomatopoeia.
Poleō, *to sell*: monopoly, monopolist, bibliopol.
Polis, *a city*: politics, police, metropolis, neopolis.
Polys, *many*: polysyllable, polygon, Polynesia.
Pous, **podos**, *a foot*: tripod, polypus, antipodes. Sansk., *pad*.
Prassō, *to do*: practise, practice, practical, pragmatical.
Protos, *first*: prototype, protomartyr.
Psychē, *soul*: psychological, psychology, metempsychosis.
Skopeō, *to see*: telescope, microscope, episcopal, bishop.

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Sophos, *wise*: sophist, sophism, philosopher, philosophy.
Sphaira, *a ball*: sphere, spherical, hemisphere.
Stellō, *to send*: apostle, epistle, epistolary.
Strophē, *a turning*: apostrophe, catastrophe.
Technē, *an art*: technical, polytechnic, pyrotechnics.
Tēle, *at a distance*: telegraphy, telegram, telescope.
Theos, *God*: theist, atheist, monotheist, pantheist, theology.
Thesis, *thema*, *a placing*: theme, synthesis, hypothesis.
Tomē, *a cutting*: atom, anatomy, tome.
Tonos, *a sound*: tone, tonic, monotone, monotonous.
Topos, *a place*: topic, topography.
Tropos, *a turning*: trope, tropics, heliotrope.
Typos, *a pattern*: type, typical, antitype, stereotype.
Zōon, *an animal*: zoology, zoophyte, zodiac.

Value of Etymology.—The great importance of a knowledge of Greek and Latin roots is shown by the number of words derived from them. From the Latin root, *pono*, there are 250 English words derived; from *plico*, there are 200; from the Greek *logos*, 156; and from *grapho*, 152. Angus says that 154 Greek and Latin primitives yield nearly 13,000 English words.

Need of Caution.—Etymology, though a help, is not a certain guide to the present meanings of words. Some words, in course of time, have been degraded. *Censure* first meant only to *judge*; now it means to *find fault*. *Villain* meant a farm servant; now it means a *wicked wretch*. On the other hand, some words have been elevated or raised in meaning. *Emulation*, which meant *envy*, now means *competition*; *knight*, a *youth or servant*, is now a title of honour.

Students should be acquainted with the present meaning of words before using them. No attempt should be made to coin words.

CLASSES OF WORDS.

HYBRIDS.¹

A *Hybrid* is an animal or a plant produced from two different species; as, a mule from a horse and an ass. A *Hybrid word* is one formed from different languages. Thus, *monocular* is derived from the Greek *monos*, alone, and the Latin *oculus*, an eye. *Cupboard* is from the Latin *cupa*, a drinking vessel, and the English word *board*. *Fire-escape* is from English and French.

Some Hybrids, like the above, are made up of words taken from different languages. Two other classes may be mentioned.

English words with Romance prefixes and suffixes; as, *ambush*, *counterwork*; *bondage*, *target*.

¹ *Hybrida*, a mongrel, something unnatural.

Romance words with English prefixes and suffixes ; as, *besiege*, *misfortune* ; *usefulness*, *foolish*.

Romance words are those derived from Latin, through French or other languages derived from Latin.

DISGUISED¹ WORDS.

When a word is adopted from a foreign language, there is a tendency among the people who use it to make it look like their own language. English soldiers called Surajah Dowlah, who put them into the Black Hole, *Sir Roger Dowlah*. The word *asparagus* has been changed into *sparrow-grass*.

Some words have been shortened for rapidity of pronunciation. *Palsy* is shortened from *paralysis* ; *barn* is from *bar-ern*, barley-house ; *proxy* is from *procuracy*.

Letters have been added or taken away. The letter *h* has been dropt before *it*, *able*, *arbour*. It has been wrongly prefixed to *hazard*, *hermit*, *hostage*.

An *l* has been inserted in *could* to make it like *should* and *would*, in which *l* is part of the root. *Alligator* is from the Spanish *el lagarto*, the lizard.

SYNONYMS.²

Synonyms are words of the same grammatical class which have the same or nearly the same meaning. They are so much alike that they are liable to be confounded ; but they often have shades of meaning which it is desirable to distinguish. The meanings of *amuse*, *divert*, and *entertain* have thus been illustrated : "Trifles that *amuse* children may *divert* grown-up people ; while we may be *entertained* by music."

We *discover* what existed before but was unknown ; we *invent* new combinations. Columbus *discovered* America ; Galileo *invented* the telescope.

Synonymous words should be carefully compared by all who seek to have a thorough knowledge of English.

HOMONYMS.³

Homonyms are words in the same form but distinct in origin and meaning. Thus *well*, for water, is from the old English *wella* ; *well*, good, is from *wel*. *Prize*, that which is taken or gained, is connected with *prison* ; *prize*, to value, is connected with *price*. *Plot*, a conspiracy, is from the Latin ; *plot*, a piece of ground, is English.

DOUBLETS.⁴

Doublets are words which, though differing in form and meaning, have the same derivation. They are, therefore, the opposite of

¹ Changed in appearance.

³ *Homos*, like, *onoma*, name.

² *Syn*, together, *onoma*, name.

⁴ A French diminutive of *double*.

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Homonyms. Thus *cuttiff*, a mean fellow, and *captive*, one taken, are both from the Latin *captivus*. *Esteem* and *estimate* are both from the Latin *estimo*; *cave* and *cage* are both from *carus*.

The difference in form often arises from a Latin or Greek word first coming through the French and then being introduced afresh direct from Latin or Greek.

In some cases the two forms have arisen from contraction or corruption. *Ant* is a shortened form of *emmet*; *diamond* is a corruption of *adamanit*.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION,¹ by some Grammarians reckoned a part of Prosody, is the art of indicating with greater clearness, by points or stops, the meaning of sentences, and the pauses to be made in reading and speaking.

The principal points are, the Comma² (,) which represents the shortest pause; the Semicolon (;) which marks one longer, and separates clauses less closely connected; the Colon³ (:) which marks a longer pause still, and looser connection of clauses; and the Period⁴ (.), or full stop, which indicates that the sentence is completed.

THE COMMA.

I.—When the subject of a sentence consists of several words, a comma may sometimes, for the sake of distinctness, be placed immediately before the Verb; as, To take sincere pleasure in the blessings and excellencies of others, is a sure mark of a good heart.

In general, a simple sentence requires only the period at the end; as, The real wants of nature are soon satisfied.

II. When several words of the same class follow one another, without conjunctions, commas are placed between them; as, Reputation, virtue, happiness, greatly depend on the choice of companions. It is the duty of a friend to advise, comfort, exhort.

1. When several words of a class follow each other, a comma is placed between the last two, although the conjunction is expressed; as, Alfred was a brave, pious, and patriotic prince. Ireland, France, Spain, and Portugal, are in the west of Europe.

¹ *Punctum*, a point.

² *Ko'ton*, a limb.

³ *Kom'ma*, a part cut off.

⁴ *Per'-i, he-dos*, a way round about,

2. When words of the same class follow each other in pairs, a comma is placed between each pair; as, Truth is fair and artless, simple and sincere, uniform and constant.

3. When two words of the same class are joined by a conjunction, they do not require a comma between them; as, Religion purifies and ennobles the mind.

III.—The members of a compound sentence, an introductory clause and the rest of a sentence, are generally separated by commas; as, He studies diligently, and makes great progress. Peace of mind being secured, we may smile at misfortunes. To confess the truth, I was greatly to blame.

IV.—*Co-ordinating* clauses are separated by commas; as, The judge, having heard the evidence, gave his decision. When the clauses are *restrictive*, no comma is to be used; as, A judge receiving bribes cannot administer justice.

V.—When *that* is a *conjunction*, a comma is usually placed before it; as, Be diligent, that you may prosper.

VI.—Words denoting the person or object addressed, and words placed in apposition, are separated by commas; as, My son, give me thy heart. The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters in the sun.

VII.—Words which express opposition or contrast are separated by a comma; as, He was learned, but not pedantic. Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull.

VIII.—When a Verb, or any other important word, is omitted, its place is sometimes supplied by a comma; as, From law arises security; from security, inquiry; from inquiry, knowledge.

IX.—Adverbial and modifying words and phrases are sometimes separated by commas; as, Finally, let me repeat what I stated before. His work is, in many respects, superior to mine. A kind word, nay, even a kind look, often affords comfort to the afflicted.

Explanatory clauses are separated by commas; as, The vessel was oblong, three feet in length, two feet in breadth, and eight inches in depth. Fortitude, or strength of mind, is required.

X.—An expression, supposed to be spoken, or taken from another writer, but not formally quoted, is preceded by a comma; as, I say unto all, Watch. Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves.

XI.—A word or phrase emphatically repeated, is separated by a comma; as, Turn ye, turn ye, why will ye die?

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XII.—Words directly spoken or quoted, are marked by inverted commas above the line; as, "Come," said he, "let us try this bow."

Commas should not be inserted between the parts of a compound name; as, Marcus Aurelius Antoninus.

THE SEMICOLON.

I.—When a sentence consists of two parts, the one complete in itself, and the other added as an inference, or to give some explanation, they are separated by a semicolon; as, Economy is no disgrace; for it is better to live on a little, than to outlive a great deal.

1. When the preceding clause depends on the following, a semicolon is sometimes used; as, As coals are to burning coals, and wood to fire; so is a contentious man to kindle strife.

2. A semicolon is sometimes put between two clauses, which have no necessary dependence upon each other; as, Straws swim at the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom.

II.—When a sentence contains an enumeration of several particulars, the clauses are generally separated by semicolons; as, Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries, of which we have not the slightest idea.

THE COLON.

I.—When a sentence consists of two parts, the one complete in itself, and the other containing an additional remark, the sense but not the syntax of which depends on the former, they are separated by a colon; as, Study to acquire the habit of thinking: no study is more important.

Whether a colon or semicolon should be used sometimes depends on the insertion or omission of a conjunction; as, Do not flatter yourself with the hope of perfect happiness: there is no such thing in the world. Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness; for there is no such thing in the world.

II.—When the sense of several members of a sentence, which are separated from each other by semicolons, depends on the last clause, that clause is generally separated from the others by a colon; as, A divine legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an almighty governor, stretching forth his arm to reward or punish:

these are considerations which overawe the world, support integrity, and check guilt.

III.—When an example or quotation is introduced, it is sometimes separated from the rest of the sentence by a colon ; as, The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity in these words : "God is love."

THE PERIOD. ¶

The Period is used at the end of all sentences, unless they are interrogative or exclamatory ; as, Cultivate the love of truth.

The Period is also used after abbreviations ; as, K C.B., for Knight Commander of the Bath.

VARIOUS MARKS.

The Note of Interrogation is used after sentences which ask questions ; as, Whence comest thou ?

The Note of Exclamation is used after words or sentences which express emotion.

It is used just after *oh* or after the next word ; as, *oh* ' me, or *oh* me ! With *O* it is used after some intervening word, as, *O* my friends !

The Dash is used to mark a break or abrupt turn in a sentence ; as,

Here lies the great—False marble, where ?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.

The Parenthesis is used to enclose an explanatory clause or member of a sentence, not absolutely necessary to the sense ; as,

Know then this truth (enough for man to know),
Virtue alone is happiness below.

The dash is sometimes used to enclose a parenthetic clause ; as, It is—it is—the cannon's opening roar.

An Apostrophe (') is used in the following cases :

1. When a letter is left out ; as, There's a way ; lov'd.
2. When a word is shortened ; as, *tho'* for *though*.
3. To denote the Possessive Case of Nouns ; as Govind's book.
4. To indicate the plural of letters and figures ; as, 7's ; mnd your p's and q's.

In the first two cases it is rarely used in prose except in recording conversations.

Quotation marks, inverted commas (" "), are used in quoting a passage ; and a quotation within a quotation is usually marked by single inverted commas (' '). "But one in a certain place

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many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop who she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and lov

tastified saying, 'What is man, that thou art mindful of him?'" This usage is reversed by some.

Brackets [] are used to enclose a word or phrase intended to supply some omission or to correct some mistake.

A **Brace** connects two or more words or lines; as,

{ He almost succeeded alone,
{ He succeeded almost alone.

The **Cedilla**¹ is a mark placed under *c* to show that it sounds as *s*; as *faracile*.

The **Diæresis**,² (¨) placed over the latter of two vowels, denotes that both are to be pronounced; as, cooperate.

The **Ellipsis** (***) or (——) denotes that some letters or words are omitted.

The **Caret**³ (^) is used to indicate that a word which had been omitted is inserted above.

The **Hyphen**⁴ (-) connects compound words; as, *all-consuming*. It is also used at the end of the line, when part of a word, too long to be received there, is placed at the beginning of the next line. N.B.—In this latter case, the division must be between syllables, not between letters of the same syllable.

The **Index** (☞) denotes a remarkable passage.

The **Paragraph**⁵ (¶) is used in the Bible to mark a change of subject. In other books this is indicated by breaks in the lines, called *indenting*.

An **Asterisk**⁶ (*) refers to some note. Other marks are **Dagger** (†), **Double Dagger** (‡), **Parallels** (||), and **Section** (§).

EXERCISES.

Write the following Exercises, and supply the points which are omitted.

The intermixture of evil in human society serves to exercise the suffering graces and virtues of the good. Deliberate slowly execute promptly. The great business of life is to be employed in doing justly loving mercy and walking humbly with our Creator. The young and the old the rich and the poor the learned and the ignorant must all go down to the grave. Charity like the sun brightens all its objects. Trials in this stage of being are the lot of man. The path of piety and virtue pursued with a firm and constant spirit will assuredly lead to happiness. What can be said to alarm those of their danger who intoxicated with pleasures become giddy and insolent who flattered by the illusions of pros-

¹ A diminutive of *z* in Greek.

³ *Caret*, there is wanting.

⁵ *Para*, beside, *graphō*, to write.

² Di-er'-e-sis, *dia*, apart, *haireō*, to take.

⁴ *Hypo*, under, *ken*, one.

⁶ A little star; *aster* a star.

perity make light of every serious admonition which their friends and the changes of the world give them! To enjoy present pleasure he sacrificed his future ease and reputation. Continue my dear child to make virtue thy principal study. Content the offspring of religion dwells both in retirement and in the active scenes of life. He who is a stranger to industry may possess but he cannot enjoy. It is the province of superiors to direct of inferiors to obey of the learned to be instructive of the ignorant to be docile of the old to be communicative of the young to be attentive and diligent. Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to mutual enjoyment. Be assured therefore that order frugality and economy are the necessary supports of every personal and private virtue. One of the noblest of Christian virtues is to love our enemies. Against Thee Thee only have I sinned. All our conduct towards men should be influenced by this important precept Do unto others as you would that others should do unto you.

The passions are the chief destroyers of our peace the storms and tempests of the moral world. As the earth moves round the sun it receives sometimes more and sometimes less of his light and heat and thus are produced the long warm days of summer and the long cold nights of winter. The path of truth is a plain and safe path that of falsehood is a perplexing maze. To give an early preference to honour above gain when they stand in competition to despise every advantage which cannot be attained without dishonest arts to brook no meanness and stoop to no dissimulation are the indications of a great mind the presages of future eminence and usefulness in life.

Do not flatter yourself with the hope of perfect happiness there is no such thing in the world. There is no mortal truly wise and restless at once wisdom is the repose of minds. If he has not been unfaithful to his king if he has not proved a traitor to his country if he has never given cause for such charges as have been preferred against him why then is he afraid to confront his accusers? The three great enemies to tranquillity are vice superstition and idleness vice which poisons and disturbs the mind with bad passions superstition which fills it with imaginary terrors idleness which loads it with tediousness and disgust. When Socrates was asked what man approached the nearest to perfect happiness he answered "That man who has the fewest wants."

ABBREVIATIONS.

A.D., in the year of our Lord.
A.D.C., Aide-de-camp.
A.M., Master of Arts.
A.M., Before noon.
Anon., Anonymous.

A.S., Anglo-Saxon.
B.A. or A.B., Bachelor of Arts.
B.C. or A.C., Before Christ.
B.C.L., Bachelor of Civil Law.
B.D., Bachelor of Divinity.

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- B.E., Bachelor of Engineering.
 B.L., Bachelor of Laws.
 B.Sc., Bachelor of Science.
 Bot., Botany.
 Cantab., of Cambridge
 C/o, Care of
 C.E., Civil Engineer.
 ✓ C.I.E., Companion of the
 Indian Empire.
 C.J., Chief Justice.
 Co., Company.
 Cf., *confer*, compare.
 Coll., College, Collector.
 Cr., Creditor.
 ✓ C.S., Civil Service.
 ✓ C.S.I., Companion of the Star
 of India.
 Cwt., hundred-weight.
 D.D., Doctor of Divinity.
 Dr., Doctor, Debtor.
 Do., ditto, the same.
 ✓ D., a penny or pence.
 ✓ D.C.L., Doctor of Civil Law.
 D.Sc., Doctor of Science.
 E., East.
 E.G., *exempli gratia*, example.
 E. and O.E., Errors and omis-
 sions excepted.
 Esq., Esquire.
 Etc. (*et cetera*), and others.
 ✓ F.R.S., Fellow of the Royal
 Society.
 ✓ G.C.S.I., Grand Commander,
 Star of India.
 Geog., Geography.
 Geol., Geology.
 Geom., Geometry.
 Gr., Greek, gross.
 ✓ Hist., History.
 ✓ H.M., Her Majesty.
 Hon., Honourable.
Ib., *ibid.*, in the same place.
Id., the same.
I.E., that is.
 Inst., instant, the present
 month.
 J.P., Justice of the Peace.
 K.C.I.E., Knight Commander of
 the Indian Empire.
 K.C.S.I., Knight Commander of
 the Star of India.
 K.G., Knight of the Garter.
 Lat., Latin, Latitude.
 Lb., *libra*, a pound.
 Ld., Lord.
 Lieut., Lieutenant.
 ✓ LL.D., Doctor of Laws.
 Lon., Longitude.
 ✓ L.S.D., Pounds, Shillings,
 pence.
 L.P., Lower Primary.
 M.A. or A.M., Master of Arts.
 M.B. or B.M., Bachelor of
 Medicine.
 ✓ Messrs., Messieurs, Sirs.
 M.D., Doctor of Medicine.
 M.E., Middle English.
 ✓ M.P., Member of Parliament.
 ✓ Mrs., Mistress.
 M.R.A.S., Member of the Royal
 Asiatic Society, &c.
 MS., Manuscript.
 MSS., Manuscripts.
 N., North.
 N.B., Note well, take notice.
 N.E., North-east.
 N.W., North-west.
 No., Number.
 Obs., Obsolete, out of use.
 O.E., Old English.
 Oxon., of Oxford.
 Oz., Ounce.
 P., page, Pp., pages.
 Par., Paragraph.
 Pd., Paid.
 ✓ Ph.D., Doctor of Philosophy.
 P.M., After mid-day, afternoon.
 P.O., Post Office.
 P.S., Postscript, written after.
 Prof., Professor.
 Prox., *proximo* (next month).
 Q., Questions.

Q.E.D., Which was to be demonstrated.	Viz., <i>videlicet</i> , namely.
Qr., Quarter.	Vol., Volume.
Rev., Reverend.	W., West.
S., South.	X., Xt., Christ.
S.E., South-east.	Xmas., Christmas.
S.W., South-west.	Yd., Yard.
Sq., Square.	&, and.
St., Saint, street.	&c. (<i>et cetera</i>), and so forth.
Ult., <i>ultimo</i> (last month).	4to, Quarto, Having a sheet folded into <i>four</i> leaves.
U.P., Upper Primary.	8vo, Octavo, Folded into <i>eight</i> leaves.
U.S., United States.	12mo, Duodecimo, Folded into <i>twelve</i> leaves.
V.C., Vice-Chancellor.	
V.R., Victoria Regina, Queen Victoria.	

PROSODY.¹

PROSODY is that part of Grammar which treats of the quantity of syllables, of accent, and of the laws of verse.

Accent² means the stress laid on certain syllables of a word. Thus, in *ty'-rant*, the first syllable, and in *pre-sumé*, the second syllable, receive the stress, or are accented.

The accent falling on a vowel makes the syllable long ; as, *la-dy* ; falling on a consonant, it makes the syllable short ; as, *lad'-der*.

It is the due recurrence³ of accented and unaccented syllables that renders English verse harmonious. Thus :—

As a beam' o'er the face' of the wa'ters may glow',
While the tide runs in dark'ness and cold'ness below ;
So the cheek' may be tinged' with a warm' sunny smile',
Though the heart' runs to ru'in in sad'ness the while'.

The insertion of an unaccented, in the place of an accented, syllable mars the smoothness of the following lines :—

¹ *Prosodia*, a song sung to music.

² *Ac, ad*, to, *cantum*, to sing.

³ Returning at intervals, *re*, back, *curro*, to run.

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she knew many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

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At *the* dead hour' of night' was heard the cry
 Of one in jeopardy. I rose and ran—
 By *the* moon's light I saw,' whirl'd round and round,'
 A basket: soon I drew it to the brink—

Quantity is the relative time occupied in pronouncing a syllable. Among the Greeks and Romans, syllables were either long or short: the pronunciation of a long one being equal in duration to that of two short ones. In modern versification, however, which consults accent chiefly, quantity receives little regard.

A **Pause** is a brief suspension of the voice introduced to add distinctness to the construction and sense.

A **Cæsura**¹ is strictly a pause in a line by *cutting* a word, dividing it so as to render it more melodious. But it means also a melodious pause, even where no division of the word occurs.

The cæsural pause follows with advantage the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable (in Epic poetry); and it may also occasionally occur after the third or seventh.

The position of the cæsural pause, however, influences the character of the verse; according as its place is nearer or farther from the commencement.

When placed after the *fourth* syllable, the verse is cheerful and spirited:—

Her lively looks | a spightly mind disclose,
 Quick as her eyes | and as unfixed as those.

When it occurs after the *fifth* syllable, the verse is less brisk, but becomes more gentle and flowing; thus,

Eternal sunshine | of the spotless mind,
 Each prayer accepted | and each wish resigned.

When the cæsura follows the *sixth* syllable, the line becomes solemn and stately; as,

The wrath of Peleus' son, | the direful spring
 Of all the Grecian woes | O goddess, sing.

Occasionally, two pauses occur.

¹ From *cæsum*, to cut,

There are also sometimes pauses which may be considered semi-cæsuras ; as,

Though deep | yet clear, | though gentle, | yet not dull ;
Strong | without rage, | without o'erflowing, | full.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification (in English) is the art of arranging words in verses, having the accents recurring at certain regular intervals.

In old English poetry, **alliteration** took the place of rhyme. Alliteration is the repetition of the same letter at the beginning of two or more words, immediately succeeding each other or at short intervals ; as,

By apt alliteration's artful aid.
The lordly lion leaves his lonely lair.
How high his honour holds his haughty head !

It was not till the beginning of the thirteenth century that rhyme began to supersede alliteration. At present, alliteration is seldom used.

There are two kinds of verse : **rhyme** and **blank verse**.

In **rhyme**, the final syllables of the lines correspond in sound.

When the final syllables of two successive lines correspond in sound, the verse is called a **couplet** ; as,

Be humble ; learn thyself to scan :
Know, pride was never made for man.

When the final syllable of three successive lines rhyme, the verse is called a **triplet** ; as,

Freedom's battle once begun,
Bequeathed by bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won.

When a verse contains several lines, not arranged in successive couplets or triplets, it is called a **stanza** ; as,

Ye proud, ye selfish, ye severe,
How vain your mask of state !
The good alone have joy sincere,
The good alone are great :

Albert Prus
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only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she kne many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop whe she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and lov

Great when amid the vale of peace,
 They bid the plaint of sorrow cease,
 And hear the voice of artless praise ;
 As when along the trophied plain
 Sublime they lead the victor train,
 While shouting nations gaze.

In blank verse, the final syllables of the lines do not correspond in sound ; as,

Procrastination is the thief of time ;
 Year after year it steals, till all are fled ;
 And, to the mercies of a moment, leaves
 The vast concerns of an eternal scene.

Every line of verse contains a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables.

The number of accented syllables in a line determines the number of poetic feet.

Poetic Feet are so called because by means of them the voice, in a manner, steps at a measured pace along the line.

Scanning is dividing a verse into the number of feet of which it is composed.

Scan comes from *scando*, to ascend ; Sanskrit, *skand*.

The feet chiefly used in English poetry are the following :—

An Iambus consists of an unaccented and an accented syllable ; as, *become*.

A Trochee consists of an accented and an unaccented syllable ; as, *lovely*.

A Dactyl consists of an accented syllable and two unaccented syllables ; as, *merrily*. This is less frequently used.

An Anapaest consists of two unaccented syllables and an accented syllable ; as, *overtake*.

Iambus comes from a word meaning to assail, being first used by writers of satire. Trochee comes from *trochos*, a running, because this kind of foot was fitted for dancing. Dactyl comes from *dactylos*, a finger, as, like the joints of the finger, it has one long syllable followed by two short ones. Anapaest comes from *anapaistos*, reversed, as it is the dactyl reversed—two shorts and a long.

The Greeks had also the following feet :—

A Spondee, consisting of two long syllables.

A Pyrrhic, consisting of two short syllables.

An Amphibrach, consisting of a short, a long, and a short.

An **Amphimacer**, consisting of a long, a short, and a long.

A **Tribrach**, consisting of three short syllables.

The **Spondee**, from *sponde*, drink-offering, was used in slow, solemn hymns. **Pyrrhic** comes from a word meaning a warlike dance. **Amphibrach** comes from *amphi*, on both sides, and *brachys*, short. **Amphimacer** comes from *amphi* and *makros*, long. **Tribrach** means three short.

The Greek feet have reference to the *length* of syllables; English versification is based on *accent*.

A line consisting of one foot is in English verse called **Monometer**; of two feet, **Dimeter**; of three feet, **Trimeter**; of four feet, **Tetrameter**; of five feet, **Pentameter**; of six feet, **Hexameter**; of seven feet, **Heptameter**; of eight feet, **Octometer**.¹

Lines ending in an incomplete foot are called **Catalectic**²; as,

| Tú the | ócean | nów I | *ly*.

Lines having a syllable over are called **Hypermetrical**³; as,

| Hence lóath | ed Mó | lanchó | *ly*.

Verse is named according to the feet that prevail in it, **Iambic**, **Trochaic**, or **Anapaestic**.

I. IAMBIC VERSE.

Iambic Verse consists of an unaccented and an accented syllable in alternate succession. This is the prevailing measure in English poetry. It may consist of any number of feet from one to eight.

1. *One Foot, or Monometer.*

Some ring,
Some sing.

2. *Two Feet, or Dimeter.*

With ra'vish'd ea'rs
The mo'narch he'ars.

Monometer and Dimeter are found only in combination with other metres. They are now rarely used.

2. *Two Feet and an unaccented syllable.*

In wo'ods a r'anger,
To jo'y a stran'ger.

3. *Three Feet, or Trimeter.*

Blue light'nings tinge' the wave,
And thun'ders rend the rock.

¹ *Monos*, alone; *di*, twice; *treis*, three; *teti*, four; *pente*, five; *hex*, six; *hepta*, seven; *octo*, eight. ² *Catalepto*, to leave off. ³ *Hyper*, beyond.

4. *Three Feet, and an unaccented syllable.*

Alive to évery féeling.
The wounds of sórrow héaling.

This measure is generally called *Anacreontic*, being the same as that used in the Odes of the Greek poet Anacreon.

5. *Four Feet, or Tetrameter.*

And may' at last' my wea'ry age'
Find out' the peace'ful her'mitage.'

Specimens.—Guy's "Fables;" Scott's "Marmion."

6. *Five Feet, or Pentameter.*

Depart'ed spir'its of the might'y dead!
Ye who' at Mar'athon' and Leuc'tra bled'!

This is the celebrated *Heroic* verse. *Specimens.*—Milton's "Paradise Lost;" Cowper's "Task;" Campbell's "Pleasures of Hope."

The *Elegiac*¹ is a variety of this—four Pentameters alternately rhyming. *Specimen.*—Gray's "Elegy."

7. *Six Feet, or Hexameter.*

Time writes' no wrink'le on' thine a'zure brow',
Such as' Crea'tion's dawn' beheld' thou roll'est now'.

This last line of six feet is called the *Alexandrine*.

Specimens.—Poems of Spenser and Thomson.

Alexandrine measure was generally used in early French poetry, narrating the deeds of Alexander the Great. Hence the name.

8. *Seven Feet.*

Let sáints belów, with swéet accord, unite with thóse above,
In sólemn láys to práise their King, and sing His dying lóve.

This kind of verse is generally divided into four lines, the first and third containing each four feet, and the second and fourth containing each three feet; thus,

Let sáints belów, with swéet accord,
Unite with thóse above,
In sólemn láys to práise their King,
And sing His dy'ing lóve.

II. TROCHAIC VERSE.

Trochaic Verse consists of an accented and an unaccented syllable in alternate succession. It may contain any number of feet from one to six.

¹ *E'* & *le-gem*, to cry woe! woe!

1. *One Foot.*

Túning,
Búning.

2. *One Foot, and an accented syllable.*

Púrple scènes,
Wínding gréens.

3. *Two Feet.*

Rích the tréasure,
Swéet the pléasure.—*Dryden.*

4. *Three Feet.*

Nów they stóod confounded,
While the lútle souned.

5. *Three Feet, and an additional syllable.*

Híste thee, ny'mph, and bring with thee,
Jést and yóuthful jóllity.—*Milton.*

This is the most generally employed Trochaic verse.

6. *Four Feet.*

Sóftly blów the ev'ning breezes.

7. *Five Feet.*

Vírtue's brightening ráy shall béam for éver.

8. *Six Feet.*

On a móuntain, stétched benéath a hóary willow.

III. ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

Anapæstic Verse consists of two unaccented syllable, and an accented one in alternate succession. This measure is used only in short lyric pieces. It may contain any number of feet from one to four.

1. *One Foot.*

'Tis in vain
They complain.

2. *Two Feet.*

In my láge shall be s'en
The revéngé of a quéen.

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only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she kne
many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop whe
she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and lov

3. *Three Feet.*

Who are théy that now bíd us be slaves ?
They aie fées to the good and the fréé.

4. *Four Feet.*

'Tis the vóice of the slúggard, I heard him compláin,
"You have wáked me too soon, I must slumber again."

Sometimes, as in Trochaic and Iambic verse, an unaccented syllable is added to the end of an Anapæstic line; as,

Then his córage 'gan fáil him,
Foi no árts could avail him.

On the wárm cheek of yóuth smíles and róses are bléinding.

Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic feet are sometimes found in the same line; as,

Ye shepherds so chéerful and gay,
Whose flocks never carelessly roám.

IV. DACTYLIC VERSE.

A fourth syllabic measure, called the *Dactyl*, consists of one accented syllable followed by two unaccented syllables; as, *mérrily*. Dactylic metres occur only in lyric poetry. The following specimen is from Scott:—

Cóme away, cóme away,
Hárk to the summons,
Cóme in your wár array
Géntles and Cómmons.

SPECIAL METRES.

The *Spenserian Stanza* consists of eight heroic lines, followed by an Alexandrine. It is so named from the poet Spenser, whose great poem, "The Faerie Queen," is in that stanza.

He there does now enjoy eternal rest
And happy ease, which thou dost want and crave,
And further from it daily wanderest.
What if some little pain the passage have,
That makes frail flesh to fear the bitter wave;
Is not short pain well borne that brings long ease,
And lays the soul to sleep in quiet grave?
Sleep after toyle, port after stormy seas,
Ease after warre, death after life does greatly please.

Ottava Rima (eight line stanza), consists of six Heroics, rhyming three and three alternately, followed by an Heroic couplet.

'Tis sweet to hear the watch-dog's honest bark,
 Bay deep-mouthed welcome as we near our home ;
 'Tis sweet to know there is an eye, will mark
 Our coming, and look brighter when we come ;
 'Tis sweet to be awakened by the lark,
 Or lull'd by falling waters ; sweet the hum
 Of bees, the voice of girls, the song of birds,
 The lisp of children, and their earliest words.

Byron.

As the name implies, it is borrowed from the Italian.

The **Sonnet**¹ is also of Italian origin. It consists of fourteen lines. There are two stanzas of four verses each, and two of three each. Milton and Wordsworth are the most successful writers of the pure sonnet.

The **Shakespearean sonnet** consists of fourteen Heroic lines, ending with a couplet.

POETIC LICENCE.²

To compensate,³ in some measure, for the fetters of poetry, various departures from the ordinary rules of Grammar, called poetic licence, are allowed.

1. It admits of many elisions⁴ of letters and syllables ; as, *e'er*, for *ever* ; *'gan*, for *began* ; *'t was*, for *it was* ; *we'll*, for *we will* ; *'l alarm*, for *to alarm* ; *ta'en*, for *taken* ; *th' eternal*, for *the eternal*, &c.

2. It likewise admits of elliptical expressions ; as,

Lives there [a man] who loves his pain.
 The brink of [a] haunted stream.
 To whom thus Adam [spoke].
 He mourned [for] no recreant fiend.

3. It sometimes adds, or cuts off, a syllable : as, in *dispart*, for *part* ; *enchain*, for *chain*, *morn*, for *morn-ing* ; *vale*, for *valley*, &c.

¹ A diminutive from *sonu*, sound.

² Leave, liberty, *tu eo*, to be allowed.

³ Make up for ; *con*, together, *penso*, to weigh.

⁴ Cuttings off, *e*, out,

casum, to strike.

Albert Prus
 h the ceiling
 t but receive.
 ung man na
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 down the st
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 many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop whe
 she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and loy

4. It employs a bolder transposition of words than prose admits of; as,

In saffron robe with taper *clear*.—*Milton*.

Thee, chantress, oft the *woods among*,

I woo, to hear thy evensong.—*Ib.*

5. It admits words which, in prose, would be considered obsolete; as, *erst* for *formerly*; *olden* for *ancient*; *sire*, for *father*, &c.

Let each, as *likes him best*, his hours employ.

6. It allows the use of Nouns for Adjectives, and of Adjectives for Nouns or Adverbs; as,

Amid the *greenwood* shade this boy was bred.

Gradual sinks the breeze into a perfect calm.

7. The Conjunction *nor* is often used for *neither*, and *or* for *either*; as,

To them *nor* stores *nor* granaries belong.

—and therefore none commands to be

Or rich *or* learned.—*Pollock*.

8. Intransitive Verbs are often used transitively; as,

Yet not for thy advice or threats, I *fly*

These wicked tents devoted.—*Milton*.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

A **Figure of Speech** is a mode of expressing ideas by words which suggest pictures or images, with a view to greater effect. In common terms, we may say of a man, "he is a brave soldier." In figurative language the idea may be expressed, "he is a lion in fight." Figures, when well chosen, make a deep impression, and give dignity to style. When used in excess, the style is said to be *florid*.¹

Before describing the principal Figures of Speech, certain changes in letters and words may be noticed.

Elision² is the cutting off a letter or syllable either from the

¹ *Flos, floris*, a flower.

² *E*, out, *laesum*, to strike.

beginning, the middle, or the end of a word; as, 'gan for began; lov'd for loved; th' for the.

Different names are given to this according to the position of the letters. **Aphaeresis**¹ is taking away a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word. **Syncope**² (syn'-co-pe) is the omission in the middle, and **Apocope**³ (a-pok'-op e) omission at the end.

Prosthesis⁴ prefixes a letter or syllable to the beginning of a word; as, beloved.

Paragoge⁵ (par-a-go'-je) adds a letter or syllable to the end of a word, as, awaken.

Ellipsis⁶ is the omission of words necessary to complete the grammatical construction; as, I saw him at St. Paul's (Cathedral).

Pleonasm⁷ is the use of words not necessary to complete the grammatical construction; as, I saw it with mine own eyes.

The principal Rhetorical⁸ figures are the following:—

A **Simile**⁹ expresses the resemblance which one thing bears to another; as, He fights like a lion. It is usually introduced by *like, as—as*, or some such words expressing likeness.

A **Metaphor**¹⁰ expresses resemblance without the sign of comparison; as, He is a lion in fight. The words *like* or *as* are left out. As in the example given, the metaphor may occur in a noun. An adjective may be employed; as, a *golden* harvest; or a verb, as, He was *struck* down.

By frequent use many words have lost their figurative character. Thus, *provide* means to see before; *express*, to squeeze out. They are employed without any thought of their literal meaning.

Mixed metaphors in the same sentence should be avoided. We may speak of "Kindling a flame," but it would be absurd to talk of "Kindling a seed."

An **Allegory**¹¹ is a description of one thing under the image of another. It is a series of metaphors so connected as to form a parable or fable. The object generally is to teach some moral truth. Psalm lxxx. 8—11, is an example. Thou hast brought a vine (the Jewish nation) out of Egypt; Thou hast cast out the heathen, and planted it, &c.

Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" and Spenser's "Faerie Queen" are allegories.

A **Fable** is a short allegory, generally drawn from the animal world.

A **Parable**¹² is an allegory drawn from the incidents of human life.

¹ *Ap'-e'-re-sis*, *apo*, from, *hairesis*, to take. ² *Syn*, together, *koptō*, to cut off. ³ *Apo*, off, *koptō*, to cut. ⁴ *Pros*, to, *thesis*, placing. ⁵ *Para*, beyond, *ago*, to lead. ⁶ *Ek*, *el*, out, *leipo*, to leave. ⁷ *Pluron*, more. ⁸ *Rhetor*, a public speaker. Rhetoric is the art of speaking with force and elegance. ⁹ *Similis*, like. ¹⁰ *Meta*, after, change; *phero*, to carry. ¹¹ *Allos*, another, *agora*, discourse. ¹² *Paraballo*, to compare.

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she knew many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

Personification ascribes life and action to inanimate objects ; as, The sea saw it and fled ; the deep uttered his voice, and lifted up his hands on high.

A lower kind of personification is seen in phrases like the *angry* waves ; the *thirsty* ground.

Prosopopœia¹ means making something past, future, or absent come *before one's face*. A dead person is represented as alive ; inanimate objects are spoken of as animated beings. Past events are described as present. The last is called the *historic present*. I see before me the gladiator lie. The term *vision* is sometimes employed.

Metonymy² is the exchange of one word for another related to it. The following transfers may be made :—

- (a.) *The cause for the effect* ; as, He is reading *Milton*, for Milton's works.
- (b.) *The effect for the cause* ; as, *Grey* hair should be respected.
- (c.) *The container for the thing contained* ; as, He drank the *cup* = the contents of the cup.
- (d.) *The sign for the thing signified* ; as, The *crown* for the monarchy.

Synecdoche³ (sin-ek'-do-ke) puts a *part* for the *whole*, the *whole* for a *part* ; a *definite* number for an *indefinite* ; as, This roof (house) shelters you ; Now the year (summer) is beautiful ; Thousands are dying = a great number.

The *Concrete* is substituted for the *Abstract*, and *vice versa* ; the material is substituted for the thing made ; as, The *foe* is forgotten in the man ; *high* and *low* come out to meet him ; he drew his *steel* = his sword.

Hyperbole⁴ (hi-per'-bo-le) represents things as much greater or less than they really are ; as, They were swifter than eagles ; they were stronger than lions.

Climax⁵ is a figure in which the sense rises by steps ; as, It is highly criminal to bind a Roman citizen ; to scourge him is enormous guilt ; to kill him is almost parricide.

Anticlimax is the opposite of climax. The figure descends by steps ; as, Die, and endow a college or a cat.

Antithesis⁶ contrasts two or more things with each other. Thus, Pope calls man, The *glory*, *jest* and *riddle* of the world.

An **Epigram**⁷ is a short pointed saying, somewhat like antithesis ; as, *Conspicuous* by its *absence* ; *art* lies in concealing *art*.

Apostrophe is a sudden turning from the subject to address some

¹ *Prosōpon*, a person, *poieō*, to make.

² *Metō*, change, *onoma*, name.

³ *Syn*, together, *dechomai*, to receive

⁴ *Hyper*, beyond, *ballō*, to throw.

⁵ *Klimax*, a ladder.

⁶ *Anti*, opposite, *thesis*, placing.

⁷ *Epi*, upon, *gramma*, a writing.

absent person or thing as if present. It is often accompanied by Personification ; thus, O Death ! where is thy sting ?

Exclamation expresses some strong sudden feeling ; as, Arise, and glut your ire !

Interrogation is an assertion in the form of a question ; as, He that formed the eye, shall He not see ?

Irony¹ is a figure by which we mean the opposite of what is said ; as, Cry aloud ; for he is a god.

Euphemism² is a gentle term to express what is disagreeable ; Thus when Stephen the Martyr was killed, it is said, "He fell asleep."

A **Pun** is a play upon words, seldom used except in jest. Shakespeare makes Gaunt say, "*Gaunt* am I for the grave ; *gaunt* as a grave."

CAUTIONS IN THE USE OF FIGURES OF SPEECH.

I.—Figurative language should only be employed when it is calculated to make a stronger impression than the ordinary form of speech.

II.—A hyperbole should never be used in the description of anything ordinary or familiar.

III.—A comparison ought not to be founded on a resemblance which is too near and obvious ; nor on such as is too faint and remote.

IV.—A metaphor should never be drawn from any object which is mean or disagreeable.

V.—Different metaphors should never be blended together in the same sentence.

VI.—Metaphorical and ordinary expressions ought never to be so interwoven together, that part of the sentence must be understood figuratively, and part, literally.

Write the following Sentences, and correct the Errors in the use of the Figures of Speech.

No human happiness is so serene as not to contain any alloy. Hope, the balm of life, darts a ray of light through the thickest gloom. Let us be attentive to keep our mouths as with a bridle ; and to steer our vessel aright, that we may avoid the rocks and shoals, which lie everywhere around us.

The man who has no rule over his own spirit, possesses no anti-dote against poisons of any sort. He lies open to every insurrection of ill-humour, and every gale of distress.

¹ *Eurōnera*, dissimulation.

² *Eut*, well, *phēmī*, to speak.

Classify the following Figures of Speech.

In Vienna's fatal walls
God's finger touched him, and he slept.

The voice of thy brother's blood crieth unto Me from the ground.
Though poor, luxurious ; though submissive, vain.
O Liberty, O sound once delightful to every Roman ear !
Looks it not like the king ?

Thy Word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path.
Thy hand unseen sustains the poles.

Can Honour's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or Flattery soothe the dull cold ear of Death ?

Rachel mourning for her children, and will not be comforted,
because they are not.

He went to Athens, and—he wrote his name.
Come, gentle sleep, and hear thy votary's prayer.
Ye devour widows' houses.

Let not ambition mock their useful toil.

Wisdom in sable garb arrayed.

Created half to rise and half to fall.

The wish is father to the thought.

It stirs the heart like the sound of a trumpet.

A little leak will sink a great ship.

Virtue is a wall of brass.

They sank as lead in the mighty waters.

Do not blow your own trumpet so loudly.

Now is the winter of our discontent made glorious summer by
this sun of York.

O Duty, stern daughter of the voice of God.

He is too fond of the bottle.

Have you read Tennyson ?

A Daniel come to judgment.

The authorities put an end to the tumult.

Who is here so base that would be a bondman ?

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION PAPERS (ENGLISH LANGUAGE)

OF THE

THREE PRESIDENCY UNIVERSITIES.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY, 1888.

[Candidates are recommended to pay particular attention to neat writing and correct expression.]

N.B.—The figures in the margin indicate full marks.

I. Into what classes may the consonants of the English alphabet be divided? Give examples of each class.

Define the terms *diphthong*, *abstract noun*, *intransitive verb*, *predicate*.

II. Distinguish *accent* from *emphasis*. What is the difference between *désert* and *desért*, *minute* and *minúte*, *invalid* and *invalid*? Place the proper accent on each of the following words: *illustrate*, *illustrious*; *chastise*, *chastisement*; *corrupt*, *corruption*; *pious*, *impious*. 2, 3, 4

III. Explain the prefixes in *mislead*, *pervert*, *convert*, *withdraw*, *disable*, *unable*, and the suffixes in *foolish*, *saltish*; *darling*, *hiring*; *loiter*, *loiterer*; *kitten*, *wooden*. 7

Form verbs from the nouns *wreath*, *advice*, *grass*, *nest*, *patron*, *friend*. 6

IV. What is the difference between strong and weak verbs? Give three examples of each. 4

Form sentences to show the difference in meaning between *born* and *borne*; *laid* and *lain*; *loosed* and *lost*; *sowed* and *sewed*. 4

V. Contrast the uses of *shall* and *will* when employed as auxiliary verbs, showing, by examples, how the meaning varies according to the person used. 7

VI. Correct the following sentences:—

(a.) He, thinking that his brother to be dead, became much sorrowful.

(b.) I have not seen him long since.

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only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she kne many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop whe she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and lov

(c.) Australia is a largest island of whole world ; it is great deal largest of all the others. 2½

(d.) He said me yesterday that he will come within 25th August. 1½

(e.) The drunk man tried to pick up quarrel with me, but I denied to quarrel him. 2

VII. Express in simple language the substance of the following passages :—

(a.) For miles around us lay the dead desert, whose sands appeared to quiver under the shower of sunbeams ; far away to the south and east it spread like a boundless ocean ; but there, beneath our feet, lay such an island of verdure as nowhere else, perhaps, exists. 6

(b.) Deeper, deeper let us toil
In the mines of knowledge,
Nature's wealth and learning's spoil
Win from school and college ;
Delve we there for richer gems
Than the stars of diadems. 6

VIII. Connect the following sentences so as to form a single complex sentence :—

I received the letter. The next day I was sitting in my room. I was deep in contemplation. A noise disturbed me. At first I thought it came from my watch. My watch, I remembered, was on the table in the bedroom. I found the noise came from a little insect. That insect is called the death-watch. 8

IX. (a.) Write a short letter to a friend on the subject of a visit you propose to pay him.

(b.) Write a short essay on *any one* of the following subjects :—

(1.) The Jubilee Celebration in your town or district ; (2.) Bodily Exercise ; (3.) Friendship ; (4.) Snakes ; (5.) The Rainy Season. 18

CALCUTTA EXAMINATION, 1889.

I. Define the terms *collective noun*, *auxiliary verb*, *indirect narration*, *parsing* ; give an example of each, and show how your definition applies to the example. 10

II. (a.) Form words in common use by adding as many as possible of the suffixes *-er*, *-ing*, *-less*, *-ly*, to the words *stately*, *occupy*, *day*, *feeble*, *whole*, *true*, *pencil*, *worship*, *run*. 4½

(b.) Give one word containing the Latin Prefix *in* (not)—to express—

- (1.) Incapable of being read.
- (2.) Incapable of being heard.
- (3.) Incapable of being repaired.
- (4.) Incapable of being accomplished.
- (5.) Destitute of knowledge.

2½

III. Expand the following compounds into equivalent phrases, using appropriate prepositions to connect the words of which they are formed :—

[Example :—*elbow-room* = room for the elbow.]

fire-engine, fire-escape, fire-proof; heart-sick, home-sick; blood-thirsty, blood-stained; horse-dealers; star-gazers; tea-cup; weather-wise; weather-bound; home-bound; hard-hearted; guess-work; self-confidence.

8

IV. (a.) Express in one *simple* sentence :—

If it had not been for the help which I gave him, it would have been impossible for him to advance.

3

(b.) Combine the following sentences so as to form a single *complex* sentence :—

It was thus that we heard the news. A week before it arrived we were walking on the seashore. We were sad. We were thinking over the chances of the war. We saw a ship in the offing. At first it looked to us like the vessel which we had long expected. We recollected it could not be the *Orion*. That ship could not have arrived so soon.

7

V. Give the rules for the sequence of tenses in English, and justify or correct :—

“Were you not aware that a circle has only one centre?”

1

“It is absurd that you should be unable to do this.”

1

What is the difference in meaning between “He ought to be here” and “He ought to have been here”?

2

VI. Express in simple language the substance of :—

(a.) While, round the bowl, of vanished years

We talk with joyous seeming—

With smiles that might as well be tears,

So faint, so sad their beaming;

While memory brings us back again

Each early tie that twined us,

O sweet's the cup that circles then

To those we've left behind us.

6

(b.) Following with praiseworthy promptitude the directions of the knight, and taking advantage of the comparative lowness of the wall at that point, the maiden was able, herself unseen, to witness with tolerable security to her person, what was passing

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she knew many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

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without the castle, and report in accurate detail the preparations that were making for the assault. 6

VII. Form sentences introducing the following expressions, and explain the meaning in each sentence of the expression used :—

Of course ; long since ; after all ; no sooner . . . than ; on the whole ; at all ; at best ; at least. 16

VIII. Re-write the following passage, correcting any errors in idiom :—

I cannot call into my mind that on any other occasion such large defalcations have been brought into the light. Although warnings after warnings were made to the accused, but they could not be prevailed to keep honest. The case of the first prisoner resembles to that of the second ; both seem to have thought their conduct as a good joke. I have no fondness to pronounce heavy sentences, but I must give the prisoners enough of time to reflect over their crime before they are set at freedom. 8

IX. (a.) Write a short letter, about 10 lines in length, to your father or guardian, telling him how you have answered this morning's paper on your English text-book. 6

(b.) Write an essay, not exceeding 30 lines, on one of the following subjects :—

(1.) The hot season of 1888 ; (2.) The best time for holding the University Examinations in India ; (3.) Learning to swim ; (4.) "Be it ever so humble, there's no place like Home" ; (5.) The electric telegraph. 15

CALCUTTA.

CALENDAR FOR 1892.

1. Punctuate (using capital letters where they may be required) :— 7

a valiant knight sir giles de argentine much renowned in the wars of pulestine attended the king till he got him out of the press of the combat he would retreat no farther it is not my custom he said to fly with that he took leave of the king set spurs to his horse and calling out his war-cry of argentine argentine he rushed into the thickest of the scottish ranks and was killed.

2. (a.) Turn into the Indirect Narration :— 10

Is it not almost incredible that pious and benevolent men should gravely propound the doctrine, that the magistrate is bound to punish, and at the same time bound not to teach? To me it seems quite clear that whoever has a right to hang has a right to educate.

(b.) Turn into the Direct Narration :—

They were told that they had now no chance of being relieved, and were exhorted to save their lives by capitulating.

3. Complete the following sentences by inserting one word in each of the blank spaces :— 14

(a.) I be much obliged if you kindly let me know how the letter be addressed.

(b.) If you done this, you certainly have lost your life.

(c.) Instead of writing to him you certainly paid him a visit.

(d.) You promised me
That you ... wear it till the hour of death.

(e.) He is such a man ... you describe.

(f.) Cicero boasted that he had dust in the eyes of the jury.

(g.) I sympathise you in your affliction.

4. Construct sentences to illustrate the use of the following words :—*above, over, under, beneath, through, throughout, thorough, in, into, beyond.* 10

5. Write a letter of at least ten lines to a friend, asking him to return to you four English books that you have lent him. (N.B.—You should specify the titles of the books, and give your reasons for requiring them.) 10

6. Correct the following sentences :— 6

(a.) Thou dashest him again to earth :—there let him lay.

(b.) I hope that I shall be hanged tomorrow.

(c.) The book is bound in calf, with gilded edges.

MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

EXAMINATION, DECEMBER, 1889

I. Paraphrase :—

But what strange art—what magic can dispose
The troubled mind to change its native woes,
Or lead us willing from ourselves to see
Others more wretched, more undone than we?
This books can do :—nor this alone, they give
New views of life, and teach us how to live;
They soothe the grieved, the stubborn they chastise,
Fools they admonish, and confirm the wise;
Their aid they yield to all; they never shun
The man of sorrow, nor the wretch undone;
Unlike the hard, the selfish, and the proud,
They fly not sullen from the suppliant crowd,
Nor tell to various people various things,
But show to subjects what they show to kings.

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she knew many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

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II. Turn all that is direct in the following into indirect narration :—

"Gentlemen," I said after silence had been restored, "there are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamt of in your philosophy. Do not be astonished at my statement. Is it fair to judge me by appearance only?" "We never have," replied one of my hearers, "and we never will judge you in this way." "What a wonderful admission!" I said, "Surely you cannot mean what you now assert." He responded, "How can you doubt it? Would that I could restore your confidence in our fidelity!" "Show it by action," was my answer, "and you need never fear my disapproving of your conduct."

III. 1. Re-write the following sentences as required, making the necessary but only the necessary changes :—

(a) The magistrate was too keen a judge of men to misunderstand the character of the witness. Use "*so*" instead of "*too*."

(b) He is supposed not to have done his exercise himself. Make "*exercise*" the subject.

(c) He is almost the best scholar in the class. Use the positive instead of the superlative.

2. Express each of the following as a simple sentence :—

(a) It seems that he has gained the prize for good conduct.

(b) He left instructions about how his property should be disposed of.

(c) They loaded the guns as quietly as they could.

(d) I am disappointed that I have not received a letter from you.

IV. 1. Combine into one simple sentence the following : The general marched upon the enemy. He marched upon them on the 25th April. He did so after some light skirmishing. He routed the enemy. He routed them with great slaughter. The slaughter was so great as to cause astonishment in the minds of the populace.

2. State what part of speech each of the following italicised expressions is equivalent to, and give its construction :—*The moon having risen*, the leader of the band addressed his men, saying that the task before them was as dangerous as it was difficult; yet they would be mad to neglect this opportunity; at the worst they could still die like brave men.

3. Use a clause for the phrase italicised in each of the following so as to bring out the exact force of "*for*" :—(a) He knows a great deal for a lad of ten. (b) For all his possessions he was discontented. (c) He has been educated for the bar. (d) Oh for a lodge in some vast wilderness.

V. 1. Give adjectives (not participles) derived from *fire*, *fraud*, *joke*; verbs from *gold*, *secret*, *half*; and abstract nouns (not participles) from *social*, *prevail*, *speal*.

2. Give a verb, an adjective, and a noun formed from each of the following words :—*human*, *trust*, *friend*.

VI. 1. Write sentences containing the following expressions so as to distinguish their meaning :—*confer with*, *confer upon*; *prevail over*; *prevail with*; *official*, *officious*; *wait*, *wave*.

2. The following words have different meanings according to the position of the accents :—*invalid*, *incense*, *instinct*. Write each word first with one accent and then with the other, and give in each case the meaning.

VII. 1. Give in four sentences the meaning of “*It is my duty to study hard*,” using in each the proper form of one of the following expressions :—*be incumbent*, *devolve*, *bind*, *oblige*. Similarly give the meaning of “*I agree to this*” by using the following :—*acquiesce*, *assent*, *concur*, *subscribe*.

2. Write the following sentences correctly :—(a) Of all others he is by far the best pupil. (b) Robert has been unwell since four days. (c) He was more popular but not so much esteemed as his predecessor. (d) A boy is known from the character of those who he associates with.

VIII. State what the italicised word in each of the following metaphors is compared to :—

1. A *doubt* ever smouldered in their hearts.
2. A hundred *hills* their dusky backs upheaved above the silent ocean.

3. The noble youth had reaped the highest *honours*.

4. His *cheek* was ploughed with the furrows of years.

IX. As an exercise in composition, write an essay not exceeding two pages on “the benefits arising from gymnastics.”

MADRAS.

EXAMINATION, DECEMBER, 1890.

I. Paraphrase :—

The Emptiness of Riches.

Can gold calm passion or make reason shine?
Can we dig peace or wisdom from the mine;
Wisdom to gold prefer, for 'tis much less
To make our fortune than our happiness:

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she knew many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

That happiness which great ones often see
 With rage and wonder in a low degree,
 Themselves unblest'd. The poor are only poor,
 But what are they who droop amid their store?
 Nothing is meaner than a wretch of state;
 The happy only are the truly great.
 Peasants enjoy like appetites with kings,
 And those best satisfied with cheapest things.

II. Give the meaning of any *six* of the following phrases, and introduce each of the six into a sentence of your own :—(1) to take heart, (2) to take to heart, (3) to have at heart, (4) to turn to account, (5) to call in question, (6) to set on foot, (7) to throw into the shade, (8) to make light of, (9) to bring to light.

III. 1. Rewrite the following sentences using in each the noun forms of the words italicised :—(a) The force was not *strong* enough to *maintain* order. (b) It is not *likely* that he will *fail*. (c) He was so *bold* as to *defy* his enemies.

2. Supply the words wanting in each of the following sentences :—(a) Be careful not to—expenses which you cannot—. (b) Do not—a course which is certain to—you to danger. (c) It is the duty of every government to—such measures as will—the happiness of the people. (d) The prisoner was—with theft, but was—after a long trial.

IV. 1. Give a synonym for each of the following words :—(a) amicable, (b) underground, (c) brotherly, (d) forefathers, (e) felicity, (f) veracity.

2. Give *one* word to express each of the following :—(a) shut out, (b) put off, (c) put in, (d) get back, (e) come to life again, (f) unwilling to believe.

3. Give the meaning of the following words when used only in the plural number :—(a) effects, (b) compasses, (c) parts, (d) numbers.

V. 1. Each of the following words may take two prepositions after it. Illustrate the use of each word first with *one* and then with the other preposition, and show how the sentences in each pair differ in meaning :—(a) compare, (b) consist, (c) enquire, (d) part (verb).

2. Form *two* abstract nouns from each of the following words, and, by means of illustrative sentences, show how these nouns differ in meaning or in usage.—(a) accept, (b) observe, (c) receive, (d) succeed.

VI. 1. Expand each of the following simple sentences into a complex sentence containing *two* subordinate clauses :—(a) The Britons, having long been unaccustomed to war, were easily

conquered by the Saxons, after the departure of the Romans. (b) It is not possible for any man to succeed without exerting himself. (c) But for his having come to my assistance, the work would have been too difficult for me to have accomplished it alone.

2. Combine together the following separate sentences so as to form *one* simple sentence:—The English were inferior to the French in number. The English defeated the French. The battle was long and well contested. There was no battle, it is said, that was fought during the war that was so desperate.

3. Analyse the following sentence into the members of which it is composed, pointing out the principal sentence and stating the nature and grammatical construction of each of the subordinate clauses:—Whatever the circumstances may have been, of this I feel sure that had he but followed the golden rule which requires that we should do unto others as we would that they should do unto us, he would never have found himself so utterly friendless.

VII. Relate, as to a friend, in the indirect form, the following imaginary conversation between yourself and the Collector of a district. beginning your account of it with the words "The Collector asked me,"—

"What brings you here? Is there anything you want to say to me?"

"I have come to ask you, Sir, to be so good as to confer on me the appointment which, I am told, is vacant in your office."

"You must tell me first what your qualifications are, and whether you have had any experience of office work."

"I cannot say, Sir, that I have had such experience, but I have passed all the prescribed tests, and can satisfy you as to my character and attainments."

"I shall try you for a week along with another man who has also applied to me for the appointment, and I shall give it to you, or give it to him, according as you show yourself to be better than he, or he shows himself to be better than you."

VIII. Write a short essay of two pages on "*Rivers, and their uses.*"

only too relevant. Mona Spurling was not a moral woman—she knew many men in her loose way. The other assistants in the flower shop where she worked recalled that Mona had recently seemed worried and low

MADRAS.

EXAMINATION, DECEMBER, 1891.

I. Paraphrase :—

I may not tell what ills o'er Edmund passed,
 Enough to say that fortune smiled at last
 In the far land where the broad Ganges rolls,
 Where Nature's bathed in glory.
 There now we find him, honoured, trusted, loved,
 For from the humblest stations he had proved
 Faithful in all, and trust on trust obtained,
 Till, if not wealth, he independence gained—
 Earth's noblest blessing, and the dearest given
 To man beneath the sacred hope of heaven.
 And still as time on silent pinions flew,
 His fortunes flourished and his honour grew.

II. 1. Distinguish between the meanings of the following pairs of words, and use each word in a complex or compound sentence to bring out clearly the meaning:—momentous, momentary; quite, quiet; luxurious, luxuriant.

2. Recast the following sentences, using in each the *adjectival* form of the nouns italicised:—(a) The barrister had sufficient *ingenuity* to see a *fallacy* in the argument.

(b) Any man of *sense* could perceive how great a fraud he had perpetrated.

III. 1. State the nature of the italicised phrase in each of the following sentences, and change it into a clause:—(a) *But for an accident* they would have reached their destination. (b) *To the surprise of all* he was acquitted of the main charge.

2. Insert appropriate prepositions in the following spaces:—Though much averse—the proposal, and though resolved to abide—the decision arrived at—long delay, he yet was willing to concur—the President's suggestion. But though he concurred—the President, and deferred—his long experience, he could not desist—the attempt to press—a definite decision on the point.

3. Expand the italicised words in the following into *adverbial* clauses, using the proper conjunctions:—(a) The *skilled* workman succeeded in solving the problem. (b) He undertook to reward only *willing* service. (c) The *swift* hare was beaten by the *slow* tortoise.

IV. Write the following sentences, making the required changes:—

(a) I wish I were able to do this. [*Use the verb "like" instead of "wish."*]

(b) It is better to live in the country than to live in the town. [*Use "preferable" instead of "better."*]

(c) Every piece of work he attempted was done well. [*Express the idea contained in the above using the negative.*]

V. 1. Analyse into clauses, stating the kind and construction of each clause:—Strange as it may appear, it is absolutely certain, should all the circumstances be taken into account, that the man who carried on his work so languidly that he gave offence to everybody, was better suited for the post than one gifted with restless energy.

2. Combine into one complex sentence, making "drove up" the principal verb:—I was leaning on the gate. I was doing this at sunset. A carriage drove up. The carriage contained a gentleman. The gentleman was middle-aged.

VI. The following conversation took place between Gesler the Governor, William Tell, and his son Walter. Write it in indirect speech as if reported afterwards to a stranger by Tell *in the first person*.

"Father!" cried Walter, clapping his hands with joy, "did you want me?"

"How could your mother let you come?" murmured Tell.

"She was not at home," replied Walter. "Only my brothers and sisters were with me, and they were all very jealous of me, they said you loved me best."

Gesler at last said to the attendants, "Fasten the child to that tree."

"For what?" cried Tell.

"To prove," said Gesler, "that there are men in my guard who can shoot as well as you."

VII. Write the following sentences correctly:—

(a) The prisoner's story is as long, though his speaking is more rapid than the other prisoner.

(b) I have already, and I do again assert that either the workman or the servant that kept the keys were in the wrong.

(c) As I am unwell, so I am unable to attend school, and I request you to excuse me of my absence.

VIII. Write the following without using any figurative language:—

(a) The sun has drunk the dew that lay upon the morning grass.

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(b) Vesuvius' fount of fire out-gushing drowned the cities on his steep.

IX. Parse fully the words italicised :—After *writing* to his father and spending a *little* of his short time in thought, he was led forth to execution, and immediately shot *dead*. The sailor was reprimanded for letting the rope *go*.

X. As an exercise in composition, write about two pages describing "A bazaar in an Indian town or village."

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY.

EXAMINATION, 1888.

- I. Paraphrase. (Omitted.) 24
- II. Write an essay of about 40 lines on the following subject :— 45
 "Prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them."
- III. Explain the following sentences :— 18
- (a) Tale-bearers but too frequently set their neighbours by the ears.
- (b) As an author, though in some respects unscrupulous, he invariably drew the line at down-right plagiarism.
- (c) In spite of all the efforts made to prolong it, the game of tyranny was now up.
- (d) He was such a methodical person, that he used to check his accounts daily.
- (e) Though commonly accounted a man of courage, yet on this occasion he utterly lost his presence of mind.
- (f) His subsequent behaviour belied all his promises of amendment.
- (g) While still very young, he promised to turn out a clever fellow, and to be a credit to his family.
- (h) By dint of severe labour, he succeeded in making himself master of the subject.
- (i) The news which he received rendered him beside himself with grief.
- IV. Give one example of each of the following figures of speech :— 6
- (a) Metaphor ; (b) Comparison ; (c) Metonymy ; (d) Personification ; (e) Apostrophe ; (f) Irony.

V. How many different meanings can be given to each of the following words :— 10

Passage, principal, spar, tender, mean, contract, present, character, will, air.

VI. (a) Distinguish by examples between the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*.

(b) Distinguish between the genitive with *of* and the genitive with *s*. Illustrate your answer by examples.

(c) When is the relative pronoun *that* to be preferred to *who* and *which*? Give examples. 9

VII. Show by examples the difference in the meaning of the following words :— 12

- (a) Custom and habit.
- (b) Entire and complete.
- (c) Pride and vanity.
- (d) Only and alone.
- (e) Feminine and effeminate.
- (f) Authentic and genuine.

VIII. Find Saxon equivalents for the following words of Latin origin :— 6

Adoration, increase, decrease, vigilant, vocation, prohibit, relinquish, form, frugality, terrestrial, celestial, omnipotent.

IX. Turn the following into indirect narration :— 10

"What is the matter with Brandon?" said Sir John. Nobody could tell.

"I hope he has no bad news," said Lady Middleton. "It must be something extraordinary that could make Colonel Brandon leave my breakfast table so suddenly."

In about five minutes he returned.

"No bad news, Colonel, I hope," said Mrs. Jennings as soon as he had entered the room.

"None at all, Ma'am, I thank you."

"Was it from Avignon? I hope it is not to say your sister is worse."

"No, Ma'am, it came from town, and is merely a letter of business."

"But how came the hand to discompose you so much, if it is only a letter of business? Come, come, this won't do, Colonel, so let us have the truth of it."

"My dear Madam," said Lady Middleton, "recollect what you are saying."

"Perhaps it is to tell you that your cousin Fanny is married," said Mrs. Jennings without attending to her daughter's reproof.

"No, indeed, it is not."

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BOMBAY.

CALENDAR, 1891—92.

N.B.—Ten marks are reserved for legibility and neatness of handwriting.

SECTION I.

1. Paraphrase :—

25

A truce to thought' and let us o'er the fields,
 Across the down, or through the shelving wood,
 Wind our uncertain way. Let fancy lead
 And be it ours to follow, and admire
 As well we may, the graces infinite
 Of Nature. Lay aside the sweet recourse
 That winter needs, and may at will obtain,
 Of authors chaste and good, and let us read
 The living page, whose ev'ry character
 Delights, and gives us wisdom. Not a tree,
 A plant, a leaf, a blossom, but contains
 A folio volume. We may read, and read,
 And read again, and still find something new,
 Something to please, and something to instruct,
 E'en in the noisome weed. See ere we pass
 Alcanor's threshold, to the curious eye
 A little monitor presents her page
 Of choice instruction with her snowy bells,
 The Lily of the vale.

Or

Translate one of the accompanying vernacular passages.

2. Explain the following sentences :—

16

- (a.) The peculiarities of his character break out upon certain occasions.
 (b.) I told him to mind what he was about, and not to disturb the meeting.
 (c.) He exerts all those qualities which are apt to give him a figure in the eye of the people.
 (d.) The action redounds to his credit.
 (e.) That goes without saying.
 (f.) Authors are blind to their own defects.
 (g.) He resigned out of spite.
 (h.) He attempted to palm it off as his own work.

3. Parse the italicised words in the following sentences :— 6

- (a.) She alone is heir to *both* of us.
 (b.) This is *just* what I want.
 (c.) He was banished the *country*.
 (d.) To *reign* is *worth* ambition.
 (e.) Near *yonder* copse.
 (f.) *Recollect* yourself, *please*.

4. Distinguish by examples the following :—Tell, say, inform, signify, ask, request. 12

5. Give the past tense and past participle of :—Beat, hurt, bleed, fight, lay, choose, lose, bid, swell, stride, dare. 7

SECTION II.

6. Write an essay of about 40 lines on :— 45

- (a.) Politeness, or
 (b.) "Where there's a will there's a way."

7. Correct any mistakes you may find in the following sentences :— 12

(a.) His knowledge of French and Italian literature were far beyond the common.

(b.) Did you never bear false witness against thy neighbour?

(c.) I am one of those who cannot describe what I do not see.

(d.) That night every man of the boat's crew were down with raging fever.

(e.) I earnestly pressed his coming to us in my letter.

(f.) Few people learn anything that is worth learning easily.

8. Name five nouns that have no singular, and five that have no plural. 5

9. Turn the following into the indirect form of narration :— 12

"But why then don't you talk to him?"

For a long while she gave no answer; she sighed several times, then she said, "I've come here to-day to talk to you, father, about something that lies very heavy on my heart."

"Well, speak freely; it will relieve you. What is it then, dear Margt?"

There was a pause and then she said, "I've greatly sinned against my son." She began to weep.

The clergyman came close to her. "Confess it to me; and we will pray together that it may be forgiven."

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BOMBAY.

CALENDAR, 1892—93.

SECTION I.

1. Paraphrase :—

30

These are Thy glorious works, Parent of good,
 Almighty, Thine this universal frame,
 Thus wondrous fair ; Thyself how wondrous then !
 Unspeakable, who sitt'st above these heavens,
 To us invisible, or dimly seen
 In these Thy lowest works ; yet thee declare
 Thy goodness beyond thought, and power divine.
 Speak ye who best can tell, ye sons of light,
 Angels, for ye behold Him, and with songs
 And choral symphonies, day without night,
 Circle His throne rejoicing, ye in heaven,
 On earth join all ye creatures to extol
 Him first, Him last, Him midst, and without end.

Or

Translate one of the accompanying vernacular passages.

2. Write an essay on "The advantages to the Hindu student of a knowledge of English." 30

SECTION II.

3. (a.) Give the plural of :—Grief, hoof, monkey, hero, 15
cloth.

(b.) The comparative and superlative of :—Old, far, mighty,
 cruel, extreme.

(c.) The past tense and past participle of :—Wear, draw, eat,
 hang, swim.

4. (a.) Parse all the words in the first three and last three 15
lines of the passage set for paraphrase.

(b.) Give the derivation of any ten words in the same
 passage.

(5.) Explain the following sentences :—

15

(a.) After receiving one broadside, the French ship struck
 her colours.

(b.) On a poll being demanded, the resolution was carried by a narrow majority.

(c.) He found the capital, and had a sleeping partnership in the concern.

(d.) This taught him not to look a gift-horse in the mouth.

(e.) His whole argument is founded on an assumption.

6. Turn the following into indirect narration :—

15

This then is my argument. It is the duty of Government to protect our persons and property from danger. The gross ignorance of the common people is a principal cause of danger to our persons and property. Therefore it is the duty of the Government to take care that the common people shall not be grossly ignorant. And what is the alternative? It is universally allowed that by some means Government must protect our persons and property. If you take away education, what means do you leave? You leave means such as only necessity can justify.

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